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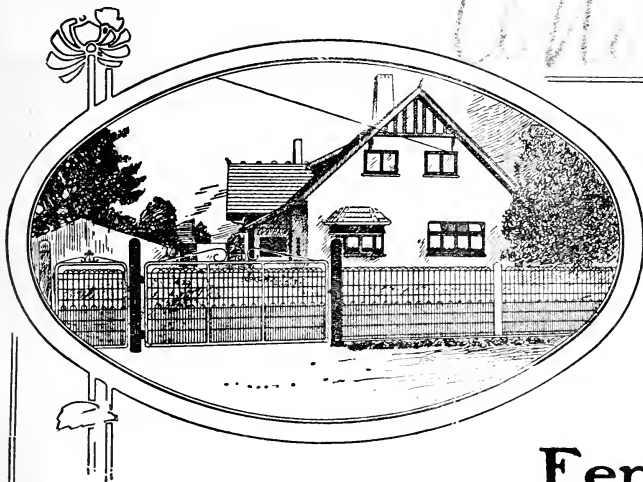
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Do we build for our own appreciation only, that we may walk complacently round our possessions, allowing no other beauty-inclined individual the pleasure of seeing? Surely not!

There are, of course, some who are naturally so, shall we say "retiring," that obscurity best pleases them. Such folk surround their dwellings with high boards, and live in insulated retirement; but the generality of men prefer to show their fellows the height of their attainment and, as it were, challenge them to follow.

Who does not rejoice in going along a good road noting the variety of taste exhibited in the villa fronts, and feel annoyed at the high and highly inartistic fences that allow only a partial view of the Architect's work?

Then, again, there are the gardens and shrubberies. Does not the successful gardener (and most are successful) delight in exhibiting? Does not the passing stranger appreciate the gardener's efforts when he can see them? Are not the whole surroundings of the road made beautiful just in proportion as the houses and gardens are open to view?

Is it necessary, is it benevolent, is it polite, to close out the public view?

There are many streets, which could be mentioned, filled with good and varied Architecture, but with frontage fences that absolutely destroy all sense of their beauty, and the streets become simply thoroughfares, about as cheerful as a cemetery, or less so, instead of a place of permanent and public delight.

If it is necessary to have the protection of fences, why not have open ones, through which all the work of the Architect and gardener may be seen?

What a difference is noticeable in various streets! Some are absolutely depressing in effect, and others gladden the heart with their beauty and the strong suggestion that at last one has found the ideal place of residence. One has but to stop, look, and reflect, to see where the difference is; it lies very much in the frontage fence.

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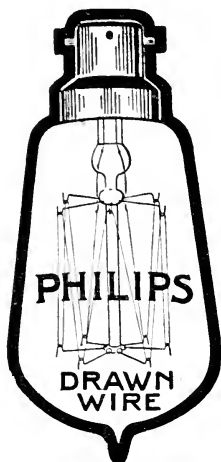
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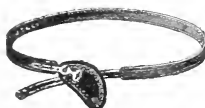
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OF REVIEWS.

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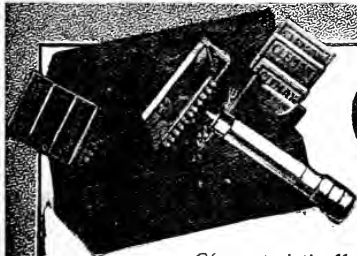
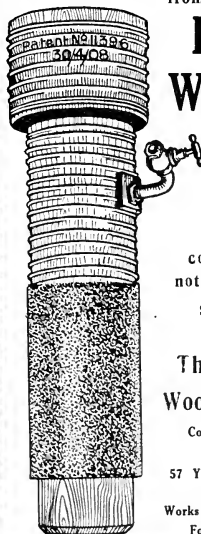
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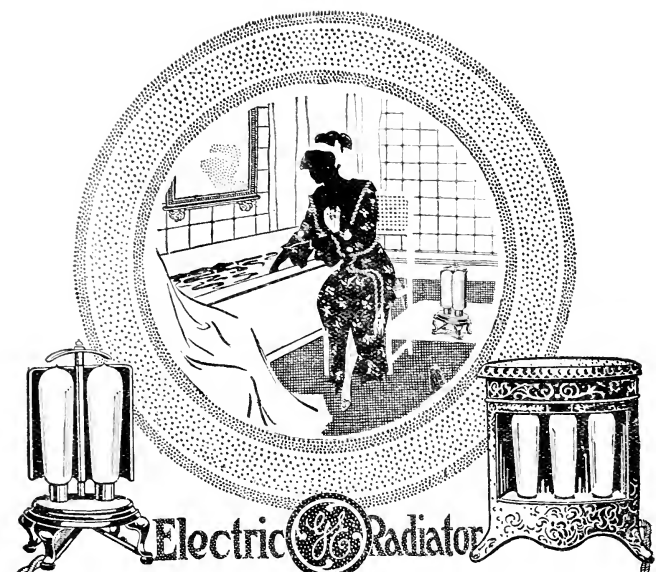
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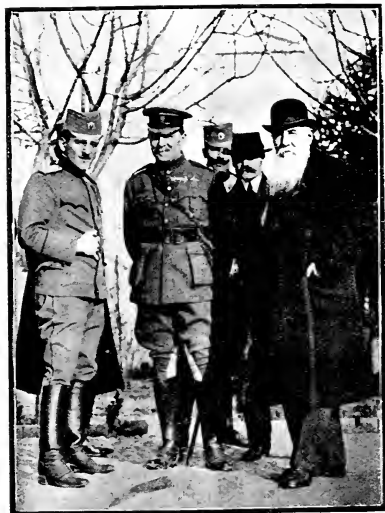
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STEAD'S REVIEW

OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY

HENRY STEAD.

PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

AUGUST 4, 1915.

A Momentous Date.

Everyone must remember fateful August 4, 1914. The wild excitement, the enthusiasm, when Britain, after putting forth every effort to preserve peace, straining every nerve to bring about an understanding between Germany and Russia, threw in her lot with France, and declared war against the Teutonic Empire, determined to fight to the death for Belgium, for liberty, and for righteousness. How confident we were. How serene in our absolute conviction that might and right in this case were one. How certain of that march to Berlin, when in a few months at most Germany would be humbled in the dust. What studying of maps there was, what buying up of text books, what a formidable array of arm-chair strategists sprang into being. But how few of us remember what we actually felt then, what we said. It is a very humbling thing to read the newspapers of the first three or six months of the war, to peruse the confident assertions made, the almost arrogant assumption that when spring came our new legions would sweep the Germans back to the Rhine, hurl them headlong to Berlin, where we would junction with the triumphant Russians. You can find all those things there. You can also find detailed state-

ments about German lack of ammunition, lack of food, lack of men, about unwilling soldiers and mutinous troops. Statements made, no doubt, with perfect sincerity, but serving to show the utter lack of knowledge of the situation or appreciation of the strength of the German army, the solidarity of the German people.

The Task Ahead.

It is only recently that a true appreciation of the terrific task ahead of us has come to the people of our Empire. To the majority it was, undoubtedly, a terrible shock, but I can take some pride in the knowledge that readers of *Stead's Review* did not experience that shock of surprise, for ever since the war began I have insisted on the utter foolishness of belittling our foes, on the unwisdom of implicitly believing all the optimistic reports which have been fed to us during the last months. Too many people pay more attention to the head lines than to the news itself. They would do well to follow Lloyd George's advice, and study the actual cables, not the dressing in which they appear in the daily papers. But if they would have a true knowledge of the real state of affairs, they must do far more than that. They must remember that every belli-

gerent puts the best possible face upon events, and that consequently the slightest admission of reverse means a great deal more than the most glowing account of a local success. But I need not tell my readers that, for I have again and again indicated how it is possible to arrive at a fairly correct understanding of the day's news. For the last twelve months, *Stead's Review* has endeavoured to give a sane and balanced account of the tremendous struggle, has tried to indicate what was likely to happen, and to show the reasons why. That we have been able to give something which can be found in no other journal is evidenced by the rapid increase in our circulation, and by the numberless letters of appreciation we have received.

Our Paramount Navy.

No mention of the year's war would be complete without reference to the magnificent work of the British navy. On land the German army has proved itself the greatest war machine ever made. On the sea our fleet has shown itself the most efficient naval instrument ever forged. Had not our ships been able to keep absolute control of the sea the future of the Empire would indeed have been dark. The Germans, having created a great weapon, kept it always bright; the French, the Italians, and the Russians allowed theirs to rust. Great Britain's fleet was, however, just as ready for sudden war at any moment as was the German army. I rejoice indeed that I am the son of the man whose "Truth About the Navy" laid the foundation of the pre-eminence of the British fleet, of the man who coined the phrase, "two keels to one," who, although a strong peace advocate, insisted that, for the cause of peace, it was absolutely necessary that every time the Germans laid down the keel of a Dreadnought, Great Britain must reply by laying down two. The German mercantile marine has vanished from the seas, her raiding cruisers were speedily chased down, and her battle fleet has been bottled up since last August. That is a magnificent achievement. The only challenge the King's ships have had comes from the submarine, and means to

check its activities have been devised. At the same time there is no good blinking the fact that there is considerable danger for Britain herself in the contemplated war of attrition against Germany, for, the longer the war lasts the more submarines our enemy can turn out, and the time may conceivably come when Britain's own food supplies may be in jeopardy.

The Russian Debacle.

Two months ago I pointed out, in these pages, that Warsaw was doomed, and suggested that withdrawing practically all their forces from before the western front of the city, the Germans would throw great masses of men at the communication lines to north and south, thus compelling the Russians to choose between Warsaw and the army. This meant that either Warsaw would be peacefully occupied by the foe, or that the Russians would risk all on a battle to save the city, and would certainly lose the remnant of their field army in the attempt, which, in view of the lack of munitions and guns, was foredoomed to failure. Warsaw, as I write, has not fallen. But it could be gathered whenever the Germans like to stretch out their hands and take it. I am convinced, though, that there are but few enemy troops to the west of the city; every man is being used in the endeavour—alas! successful endeavour—to cut through the lines of railway connecting Warsaw with Kiev and Petrograd. Every effort is, of course, being made by the foe to trap the Russian army by seizing the railways which it must use in its retreat. The question now is not whether Warsaw will be saved, whether Ivangorod can be held or Novogeorgievsk resist the German onslaughts—the one vital thing is whether the Russian troops can escape. If they hang too long on to the forts on the Narew they will not get away. If, however, they have left only small garrisons, which they are prepared to sacrifice, but which will fight furiously against the foe ere they surrender, then they stand a good chance of escape; but if they are not already for the most part out of Poland, then the Germans will make great captures.

Is the Russian Army Safe?

It seems pretty clear that von Bülow has got so close to Vilna that his forces must have cut the Warsaw-Petrograd line in the north. In the south Lublin has fallen, which means that the Warsaw-Kiev railway is not available for retreat. This leaves practically only the direct line from Warsaw to the fortress of Brest-Litewski, and to move a whole army along a single railway, even though it be double-tracked, is clearly impossible unless there is plenty of time. We are, therefore, obliged to come to the conclusion that either Poland is practically evacuated already, or that the Germans will succeed in trapping an entire army. The latter supposition is the most improbable in view of the fact that the Russians have really had plenty of time, though, it is true, they did not appear to wake up to the significance of von Bülow's doings until quite recently. For many weeks his invasion was treated as a mere more-or-less objectless foray. If the Russians get safely away, or even if the Polish army is trapped, it is highly improbable that the Germans will invade Russia proper. That is an undertaking of too gigantic magnitude, and, with their western frontier to defend, the Germans would never attempt it. If von Bülow takes Vilna, the Russian forts on the Niemen would have to capitulate, or the garrisons starve. This means that the German line would run roughly from Riga through Kovno, Grodno, Bialytok, Brest-Litewski, and down the Bug River to the Galician frontier.

The Sequence of Victory.

How is this tremendous victory of the Germans going to effect the war? That is the question we are all asking. We are resigned to the loss of Warsaw, of Poland. Have not our experts assured us that Warsaw, like Przemysl, and Lemberg, Antwerp and Ostend, has really no strategical value? This discovery on their parts is, it is true, a rather recent one, but in this particular case I agree with them, in fact, I pointed out a couple of months ago that a retirement from Poland, although it would give a painful impression, would not actually harm Russia much. Her vital

parts are too far removed for any invader to reach. The effect of Warsaw's fall will assuredly be greater in Flanders, in France, possibly in Italy, than in Russia. How much it will alter the situation in the western theatre depends a good deal upon what strength Russia will have left after she loses Poland. It is our happy custom to speak of Russia's millions as if she had an absolutely inexhaustible supply of soldiers to draw on. We have come to imagine that, no matter how terrible her losses may be, her immense reserves make it possible for her to spring again into the arena with renewed strength and vigour. One of the most surprising things in the whole struggle, it is true, has been the wonderful recuperative power of the Tsar's armies. Defeated at Allenstein, at Tannenberg, at the Masurian Lakes, at Lodz, each time they have rolled back with apparently increasing force. They have unquestionably won what military honours have gone to the Allies, for the nature of the struggle in the west has forced soldiers to become navvies, and generals to become engineers. Having done so much, dare we hope that once more they will gather themselves together and hurl the foe backwards out of Poland, out of Galicia, resume again that steam-roller progress to Berlin which was so sensationally stopped by Hindenburg last September? If they can, then the future is bright. If they cannot, then there must inevitably be a black time of waiting until they have recuperated, have trained new armies, have possessed themselves of guns and ammunition.

How Is It With Russia?

It is worth while trying to find out how it really is with the Russians. At first sight it seems clearly impossible to wring any information of a definite character out of the optimistic cables which Petrograd has been sending us for the last few weeks, but a few hints can be picked up. The doings of the Duma supply the most cheerful item Russia has been able to provide us with for over two months. Obviously there is no chance of that separate peace the Germans have always regarded as likely, once Russia was thoroughly

beaten. If the spirit of Russia remains as it is now we can continue to sit down in comfort in our trenches in France and Flanders, and wait patiently until she is fit again. At the same time it is hardly a fair thing to expect Russia to do all the pushing whilst we do the sitting tight. Still, the confident attitude of the Duma is infinitely pleasant.

What Have Been the Russian Losses Since the War Began?

The Germans claim that they and the Austrians between them have taken no less than 1,500,000 Russian prisoners since last August. At the end of the year we now know that the Germans had 310,000 Russian prisoners. By the middle of February, when the 800,000 Russians who invaded East Prussia had been driven out, the captives rose to 460,000. At that time the Austrians were said to have 230,000. That is close on 700,000 prisoners in all. Early in July Berlin announced that 520,000 additional soldiers had been captured in the Galician campaign, bringing the total up to 1,200,000. We can, of course, only judge the correctness of these figures by comparing them with the numbers of British and French prisoners the Germans say they hold. According to them they had 18,000 British at the end of the year, and 220,000 French. Early this month the French admitted that they had had 300,000 men taken prisoner, and the British missing considerably exceeds 20,000; in fact, it is now 53,000. Therefore, we may assume that, so far as the French and British are concerned, the German return is accurate. If the 1,500,000 Russians claimed is correct, then the Germans must have made an immense haul in Galicia and Poland recently, nor is that improbable. If we add together the prisoners reported taken by the Germans, a thousand there, a couple of thousand here, and so on during July, we find that it makes about the figure claimed.

A Loss of 3,500,000 Men.

In the present munition-starved armies of the Tsar, the loss of a uniform and rifle is even more serious than that of the man, and every prisoner takes his

uniform and his rifle with him. In addition, when whole armies are captured like this, huge quantities of guns and supplies must be taken with them. For an estimate of the Russian killed and wounded we have to go to France. In an official statement a few weeks ago, Paris placed the killed and wounded and missing Russians at 4,000,000. This seems incredibly high. In the Franco-Prussian war, the only struggle which affords anything like a parallel, the French killed and wounded reached a total of 300,000, and the Germans took 700,000 prisoners; if the proportion obtained in the present struggle then the Russian casualties would only be 600,000. In the 1870-71 war, however, Sedan, Metz, Strassburg, and other towns captured accounted for the relatively huge numbers of prisoners, compared to casualties. During the present war no large fortress has been taken by the Germans, with the garrison still in it. Therefore, it is fairly safe to assume that the losses in killed and wounded will be at least equal to the prisoners, probably more, say, 2,000,000. It seems pretty clear that Russia must in all have lost something like 3,500,000 soldiers since last August. What men, then, has she left in the field? Patently very few, and the rapid manner in which her armies were compelled to fall back from Galicia shows that they must have been comparatively small. It was estimated that after six months Russia could put 5,400,000 soldiers of sorts into the field. Of this total only 2,000,000 were first and second line troops, the balance would be garrison and communication troops and reserves only called to the colours in emergency. If Russia wanted more than this number she would have to train her men just as Great Britain had to, and, moreover, she would have to equip them with rifles and uniforms. We have learned recently how colossal is the task of equipping a million men. If Great Britain, with her vast resources, has experienced this difficulty, we can easily understand how it must be with Russia.

Force the Dardanelles.

Of her 5,500,000 men 3,500,000 have gone, although perhaps half-a-million

of the wounded may in time get back to the front. At least 500,000 good troops are needed to oppose the Turkish invasion in the Caucasus, and a large number are required in Asia. It would seem, therefore, that, unless she started training raw recruits directly the war began, Russia can only have at the most a million men available for active warfare, and, in this struggle of titans, that is a relatively small number. If she did get to work training men right away, she cannot equip them until the Dardanelles are forced, and she is bound to have very great difficulty indeed in officering the new armies. Her recent campaigns will have absorbed all her best men, that is inevitable, and from our own experience in the west we know that the wastage of officers is one of the most serious problems commanders have to face. If these calculations be anything near the truth, then we cannot hope to see Russia taking the offensive in earnest again until the spring or summer of next year. Meanwhile her weakened state will make it possible for Germany and Austria to withdraw a great portion of their forces, which will appear in Flanders, in France, and in the Trentino. That is why the fall of Warsaw is going to prove more serious for France and Britain and Italy than for Russia herself.

Reversing the Position.

Even when spring comes, and Russia *redivivus* hurls herself against the Austro-German line, it is by no means certain that she will be able to break it. If the Polish population is friendly, the defensive line of the enemy on the Bug River will speedily be fed by many lines of railway which can be quickly laid on the flat Polish plains. Even if Russians did hammer a gap in the German lines, a Muscovite army, thrusting through it to Warsaw, would be in imminent danger of destruction, caught between troops sent north from Galicia and south from East Prussia. But, although the Russians may find it impossible to throw back the Austro-Germans, they will obviously compel our enemies to keep large forces in the eastern theatre, forces which will certainly be badly needed elsewhere. Bearing these

facts in mind, we arrive at the conclusion that, whilst during 1914 and 1915 the French, British and Belgians have been content to hold great masses of the Germans in play in the west, relying upon the Russians to force their way to Berlin, in 1916 the order will be reversed. The Tsar's troops will content themselves with "nibbling tactics," which will compel the retention of mighty numbers of Germans and Austrians in the east, and France and Britain will be called upon to achieve the march to Berlin.

The Unhappy Poles.

One wonders what will be the attitude of the Poles—those of that unfortunate people who are left—under the new order of things. The Kaiser intends to keep his promise, and declare Poland independent. He will also add to the new kingdom Galicia and parts of Prussian Poland, and, by making Danzig a free port, will give an outlet to the new Poland. The Austrians, directly the war broke out, promised to add Galicia to Russian Poland, and admit the Poles as a third party to the Dual Empire. It is said that this offer is the one the Poles were most eager to accept, as they knew from experience that Austrian rule was far preferable to Russian or German. As, however, it is the Germans who have wrested Poland from the Tsar, the situation is now different, but the new plan appears to be an amalgamation of the two schemes announced at the outbreak of war. It is pretty certain that out of this furious struggle some sort of a free Poland will emerge. The only question will be whether it has a Russian or German overlord. Ere that is decided the Polish plains are like to be further devastated, the Poles to be still further reduced by battle, murder and sudden death.

Has Bulgaria Got Adrianople?

Has Bulgaria got Adrianople? That is a question which does not seem to have occurred to those who have been commenting on the recent arrangement between Turkey and Bulgaria. According to *The Times* correspondent at Sofia, the Sultan appears to have ceded



Punch. THE DOGS OF WAR. [London.
THE ROUMANIAN DOG: "I say, that's a sight that
makes you strain at the leash—what?"
THE BULGARIAN DOG: "Ra-ther!"
(Reproduced by arrangement with Messrs. Brad-
bury, Agnew and Co.)

to Tsar Ferdinand all that territory, west of the River Maritza, which the Turks reft from the Bulgarians whilst these were fighting with their backs to the wall against Serbia, Greece and Roumania. Now, we are told, Bulgaria's frontier coincides with the Maritza, and she has entire possession of the railway which runs along the right bank of that stream from Philipopolis to Dedeagatch. Now, Adrianople is on the Maritza, although, if my memory serves me aright, the city lies on the left bank, with Karagatch, its most prosperous suburb, on the opposite side. The railway station is, or, at any rate, was, before the last war, in Karagatch, on the right bank. The Tunja River junctions with the Maritza here, and runs through the centre of Adrianople. It is, of course, possible for the Bulgarians to be in possession of that part of Adrianople which is on the right bank of the river, and for the Turks to retain the larger part of the left bank, but this would create a state of things which

could not possibly last long. To get to the railway which would take them to Constantinople the people of the city would be compelled to cross the frontier into Bulgaria, and all goods trucked from Adrianople to the Turkish capital would have to pass through Bulgarian territory in bond. Then, too, with the Bulgarians in possession of the suburbs, well within the ring of forts, which, presumably, have been repaired, the Turks could never hope to hold the city should friction arise between the two countries. It is a fairly safe assumption that if Adrianople is not already Bulgarian it soon will be.

Neutral Bargaining.

We are asked to believe that this arrangement between the two States has no political significance. We must presume, therefore, that Turkey has ceded these 400 square miles of territory, which were necessary for the safety of Adrianople, out of pure generosity and goodness of heart. Some of us have shown ourselves pretty credulous during the last few months; but there is a limit even to our credulity, and everyone will be convinced that Turkey must have had some *quid pro quo* given her. I cannot but think that Bulgaria, like Roumania, is driving as hard a bargain with our foes as possible. Both can make capital out of continued neutrality, both can haggle for concessions if they undertake to remain non-combatants. The beauty of that position is that they can wring territory out of both sides by sitting tight and doing nothing. If they take part in the conflict they will assuredly have to rely more or less upon their own prowess to take what their new allies promise them. It is quite possible, too, that Bulgaria may not have sold her continued neutrality definitely to either side yet. This little arrangement about the Maritza may have reference to the transport of munitions to Turkey, which, although fully permitted by international law, may, of course, be prevented by any neutral Government. If that is really the case, then we may quite possibly hear of Roumanian troops occupying Bukowina—a gift from Austria for neutral services rendered.

The Dardanelles.

There appeared to be a hope that we might have got through the Dardanelles ere the anniversary of the declaration of war arrived, but that chance disappeared, when the hitch over the supply of ammunition was overcome by concessions to Bulgaria and threats, or promises, to Roumania. True, our enterprising submarines are interrupting the conveyance of supplies across the Sea of Marmora, but, as long as the Asiatic shore remains in Turkish hands, ammunition, provisions and reinforcements can reach Gallipoli. As I pointed out last month, unless the unexpected happens it would seem to be entirely necessary to land a great army in Asia Minor to co-operate with the forces so gallantly, but slowly, forcing their way on to the Gallipolitan Peninsula. Our premature attack by the fleet alone left the Turks two months in which to prepare for a tremendous resistance on Gallipoli. During the two months or more

that we have been struggling there, they have been allowed ample time to make the Asiatic side of the Channel as impregnable as the European. The Germans must realise that the key to the European situation is the Hellespont, and will, we may be sure, spare no effort to prevent us turning it in the lock. With Bulgaria and Roumania complacent, and Russia temporarily *hors de combat*, we may rely upon the Turks receiving more considerable assistance from their taskmasters, or Allies, than ever before. The rumour that an Italian officer of high rank is at the Dardanelles consulting with General Hamilton and his French colleague as to the best manner in which Italy can assist in forcing the narrow channel, is good news. At the same time I hardly think we can expect considerable help from our new Ally, for, the moment a great force was detached from Italy and brought to Asia Minor, the Austro-Germans would surely counter by a furi-



AFTER A ZEPPELIN RAID ON ENGLAND

Incendiary bombs which have failed to explode. It is said that they contain fero-aluminium powder, used for fusing rails and for other purposes where great heat is required

ous onfall from the Trentino into the plains of Lombardy, and make a great drive at Venice. Italy is, unfortunately, very vulnerable, and, knowing the value of the Dardanelles, Germany would surely make tremendous efforts to force Italy to withdraw any help she might have sent Sir Ian Hamilton. Both Austria and Germany will have men to spare for such a task in a few weeks. It is more probable that Greece may send an army to Asia Minor than that Italy would do so, but Greece will obviously hesitate to enter the war, unless she were certain that Bulgaria would not seize the opportunity of wresting Salonika and parts of Thrace from her.

Italy's Progress.

The incoming of Italy, from which so much was expected, has, thus far, proved the greatest disappointment of the war. It has not had the slightest influence on the eastern campaign of Austria, and it has achieved nothing at all tangible for Italy herself, as yet. True, we are told daily that Gorz is on the eve of falling, but it still holds out. The Italians have crossed the Isonzo River in places, but even now they are nowhere more than ten miles beyond the frontier. If Gorz continues to defy all attacks, the position of the Italian army in the Udine may well become precarious. Once the Russians are out of Poland immense numbers of Austrian troops will be freed for use elsewhere, and, it is certainly conceivable, that they might be hurried across to the Tyrol with the object of cutting off the Italian armies attacking Gorz. When Austria clung to what is known as the Trentino she did so for strategical reasons only. This long spur, driven into the heart of northern Italy, gives her an immense military advantage over her quondam ally, as a glance at the map will show. Venice is but fifty miles from the Austrian frontier, and the two chief towns of the famous Quadrilateral, Verona and Padua, are still nearer. A million war-hardened veterans from Galicia surging down in the rear of the Italian armies would imperil the very existence of the Roman State, though, if reports from Rome may be trusted, in artill-

ery, in dash, in *morale*, the Italians are far more than a match for the Austrians, and, if it were not for the fact that the enemy are so strongly entrenched before Gorz, they would long ago have been swept away. A remark rather reminiscent of what we heard from Tommies in South Africa, who upbraided the Boers for not coming out from behind their sheltering kopjies and fighting like men!

Financial Crash in Germany.

Many people have asked me whether I do not think that financial smash in Germany will not bring the war to an abrupt conclusion? Everyone is obliged to admit that preconceived notions about finance have been shattered by this struggle, which experts insisted could not go on for six months, because of the immense cost. I am no authority on finance, and my ideas may be utterly wrong, but I confess I can see no hope whatever that lack of money or financial bankruptcy will compel Germany to sue for peace. I have dealt in previous issues with the methods employed by Germany, and the other Powers, in financing the war, and have pointed out that, owing to the fact that Germany has compulsorily been made self-contained, gold does not really matter at all to her. She is banking entirely upon winning this war, or, at worst, making an advantageous draw. If she is defeated, then the credit of the State vanishes, and commercial and financial smash is inevitable. If she wins, however, her notes will be redeemed at face value. If it is a drawn battle, they will also be redeemed, but hardly at par. The Germans reckon they are fighting for their very existence, therefore they will go the whole hog. The Government will insist upon its bank notes being accepted throughout the Empire as legal tender, and, as long as these notes are used within the Empire only, their value will not depreciate, or, perhaps, it would be better to put it that their purchasing power will remain exactly equal to that of gold coins. It is only when purchases have to be made abroad that gold is needed, and Germany is getting fewer and fewer opportunities to obtain any supplies from foreign countries. She

has to rely entirely upon her own products, and she buys them from her own citizens with I.O.U.'s, in the form of notes, and those citizens use those notes to buy what they require. Finally, the Government raises another war loan, and these notes find their way back again into the Treasury. A vicious circle, if you like, but one which can go on indefinitely. Token money, it seems to me, is all that Germany needs for internal use, and the printing press will give her all the millions she may require. Ultimately a crash will come, but that will be after the war has been ended by military force, not whilst the struggle is going on.

Atrocities.

Many of my readers have written, asking why I made no reference to the "Report of the British Committee on Alleged German Atrocities" in my last number? The answer is very simple. When we went to press the Report had not been published, nor was it obtainable here. With this Report of Mr. Bryce's Committee before me, as well as the Reports of the French, Belgian and Russian Commissions of Enquiry, the Reports on the violation of the rights of nations in Belgium and the summary of the German White Book on the alleged Russian atrocities in East Prussia, I sat down to write an article on the subject. I speedily realised that there were only two ways of treating the ghastly matter. Either in a vein of red-hot fury against the perpetrators of these infamies, or in an entirely abstract and judicial manner, utterly divorced from personal feelings. This meant weighing the evidence, and attempting to decide whether all of it was admissible in view of the fact that much of it was of necessity based upon the testimony of witnesses who had gone through horrible scenes, and been treated with fierce cruelty and bearing in mind the fact that *non audire est alteram partem*. To take the first course would be to follow one's inclinations. But, as that has been the attitude of everyone who has reviewed these Reports in the press, it would be merely a work of repetition. To attempt to take up any other point of view would be to court

the accusation of being un-British. Confronted by these two alternatives, I decided not to attempt to write the article at all, merely content myself with a few notes on the subject.

The Bryce Report.

After having read several articles upon this Report, I was rather surprised on examining the document itself, to find that it relied absolutely upon the evidence of Belgians and others in England, of witnesses examined not before the Committee itself, but by special examiners who, although in most cases gentlemen of legal knowledge and experience, had no authority to administer an oath. Viscount Bryce and his fellow-Committeemen confined themselves to examining the depositions only, but did not themselves interrogate the witnesses. In arriving at their conclusions they depended, too, a great deal upon the diaries of German soldiers and officers taken from dead men or prisoners, and this is indeed the most convincing evidence of all, for, "out of their own mouths shall they be confounded." Of all the Reports I found that of the French the most convincing. The members of this Commission visited the villages which had been destroyed, and actually interviewed the victims of outrage, in some cases even exhuming bodies to confirm reports. In the nature of things the Bryce Committee could not do this, it was obliged to depend entirely upon the statements of the refugees. But brief mention of the German White Book has been made in British papers. It appears that the Germans consider their Commission as impartial as ours, and give horrible details received on the spot from sworn witnesses. Two wrongs, however, do not make a right, and it makes no difference what may have happened in Prussia. That gives not the slightest excuse for the barbarities perpetrated in Belgium, on whose innocent people inhuman soldiery appear to have wrought their will.

Human Screens.

The Reports demonstrate quite clearly that, in defiance of the rules of warfare, the German troops used old men, women

and children as screens when they advanced against the Belgians and French. It is also certain that great numbers of people were shot in cold blood, that hostages were murdered, and that entire villages were wantonly burned to the ground. These things appear to have been done in conformity with that policy of "frightfulness" which those who directed the German armies considered to be necessary to utterly cow the inhabitants, and make certain that no civilian in future would dare raise his hand against the invaders. The best proof that these horrible doings were committed to order is that many towns and villages escaped unharmed, showing that the soldiery were well under control. Having achieved their purpose these hideous doings ceased, and the present army of occupation appears to conform more or less to the rules of war and humanity. Nothing can excuse those who, in cold blood, perpetrated these horrors, and terrible must be the retribution, though it may tarry for generations by the way.

The Diaries.

The diaries kept by the men themselves are confirmatory of the evidence of the refugees up to a certain point. They demonstrate that there was wholesale looting and wholesale killing, but they almost all explain the need for shooting civilians because shots had been fired on the German troops in the particular village where they dwelt. They also speak constantly of the *Franc-tireurs* harassing them. The Belgians state that no shots were ever fired by civilians from houses on the invaders, and the *Franc-tireur* stories are said to be without any foundation in fact. That may be quite true, but it is obvious from these diaries that the men who wrote them were absolutely convinced that comrades had been shot by civilians, and that *Franc-tireurs* were constantly picking them off. Even though they were entirely mistaken, this conviction of theirs does at any rate explain to some extent their individual cruelties, for evidently the rank and file of the Germans absolutely believed that the only way to put a stop to the shooting by civilians and *Franc-tireurs*

was to act "frightfully." Individual brutality is one of the horrible, but expected, concomitants of bloody war; it is the cold-blooded methods employed by those in authority in cowing the civilian population which have horrified the world. These soldiers' diaries show that many of the men in the thick of the fighting, even with the lust of battle on them, deplored these methods. We may be quite sure that the bulk of the German people themselves also abhor the "frightfulness" of their military autocrats.

The German War Book.

That the Germans in Belgium acted on a well-thought-out and pre-arranged plan of "frightfulness" is shown, not only in these Reports, but also in what is called the *Kriegsbrauch in Landkriege*, the War Book of the German General Staff, issued for the instruction of German officers. Its general trend is best summarised by the following quotation, taken from the third paragraph of the Introduction: "A war conducted with energy cannot be directed merely against the combatants of the enemy State and the positions they occupy, but it will, and must, in like manner, seek to destroy the total intellectual and material resources of the latter." There it stands. The leaders of German militarism, who have for years gone deeply into the question of how best to conduct war so that the enemy is thoroughly beaten, have deliberately arrived at the conclusion that the end justifies the means, that, by the exercise of carefully directed "frightfulness," they can hasten the conclusion of the struggle, save the lives of their soldiers in a hostile country. This policy may conceivably, in the long run, mean less loss of civilian life, but it is a horrible one nevertheless. How this bloody theory of the German General Staff works out is best shown by the following quotation from a German newspaper, the well-known *Kölnische Zeitung*. Writing of the occupation of Belgium, it said:—

We all made one fundamental principle clear: for the fault of the individual the community to which he belonged must suffer. The village in which our troops had been shot at by the civilian population was burned

down. If the culprit was not discovered, a few representatives were taken out of the general population and shot. Women and children were not touched, except when they were found with weapons in their hands. This principle may seem hard and cruel—it has been developed from the customs of modern and ancient war history, and, as far as it can be spoken of at all, recognised. It is also justified by the theory of setting an awful example ("Abschrecken"). The innocent must suffer with the guilty; and when the latter can not be found, they must suffer for the guilty. . . . War is no drawing-room game; war is hell-fire. He who sticks his finger into it will burn his hand, his soul, and his life. The poor, confused, misled Belgian nation has been sacrificed to this fate.

That is how Germany made war!

Mass Formation.

We have heard a lot about the mass formation in which the Germans attack, and we have been told that it entails a useless waste of life. When we ask why the Germans, who, everyone must admit, have brought the science of warfare to its highest pitch, should use this method we are told that the German soldiers have not enough initiative to adopt the tactics we employ. That argument may be dismissed as worthless. It is surely another case of the end justifying the means. By hurling these masses of men against the lines of their foes the Germans have again and again broken through, and compelled the retirement of the opposing forces. Even if it costs ten thousand men, as against a couple of thousand if the attack were made in open order, it would be worth while, for the wedge would get through whilst the lighter attack would fail. The whole German policy in military matters is based on the abovementioned principle. The end is to conquer, hence mass formations, poisonous gases, "frightfulness." No illustration brings this principle better home than that given by the difference of opinion between Bismarck and Moltke before Paris in 1870. The Iron Chancellor urged that the French capital should be taken by assault *at once*. The Commander-in-Chief refused, because he said the loss of life would be so great. Bismarck, writing on the subject after the war was over, pointed out that whilst his method would perhaps have cost

20,000 men, that adopted by Moltke in the long run cost far more, and prolonged the war for five months. The terrible loss in storming Paris, taken as a single action, would have been appalling, but, because that loss was not faced, a far greater number of men lost their lives during the siege and the fighting in other parts of the country.

Distracted Mexico.

There is a strong feeling developing in the United States that there must be an "All-American" intervention in Mexico. By "All-American" is meant the United States, and all the Latin Republics, both Central and South American. That is hardly probable, but ere long intervention of some sort will be inevitable. Probably Brazil, Argentina, Chili and the United States will take joint action. For some time there has not been revolution in Mexico, there has been anarchy. Bandits, with crime-stained followings, have ravaged the land. The Mexican people themselves have been hardly represented at all in the so-called revolutions which have brought the country from order and prosperity to shame and poverty during the last four years. Latterly Mexico city itself has been occupied, first by one bandit, and then by another worse than the first. Each ejects the other to the compliment of pillage and slaughter. Property has been destroyed all over the distracted land. Even the railways have been torn up. Unfortunately, the Mexican people are temperamentally incapable of rising *en masse*, and stringing up these blood-thirsty bandits, who have caused all this misery in the name of the constitution, a document which has never been taken seriously, and which is of value only as a shibboleth. At the moment, Villa appears to be again in the ascendant, but he could never retain the reins of government for long, nor could he ever sit in the Presidential chair. He is a wonderful leader in the field, but his ruthlessness has made him an immense number of enemies, and he is said to have no idea whatever of administration. The sooner the present terrible state of things is ended the better, and it can only be cleared up from outside.

Australia's Finances.

Last month I dealt at some length with Federal finances, and ventured to estimate that our war Bill would be somewhere about £40,000,000. A couple of weeks later Mr. Fisher announced that just about that sum would be required. I based my calculations upon certain estimates I had made, which estimates have now had to be increased owing to the added number of men we are sending to the front, and certain other items, so that I now find that the money which will, in all probability, be needed, is nearer £50,000,000 than £40,000,000. I also pointed out that, had the war not broken out, there would have been a deficit of at least £3,000,000 on the ordinary budget. However, the main thing is how the needed money is to be raised. We are at war, and we have to put the thing through no matter what the cost. Now, Mr. Fisher proposes to raise the money he needs by a war loan for £20,000,000, £5,000,000 of which is at this moment being asked for, and by special taxes, the most notable of which will be levied on incomes. What others the Treasurer intends to impose is unknown at present, for he has postponed his statement on the subject until next week. Now, how, one may well ask, is the remaining £20,000,000 or more, not provided for by loan or taxes, going to be obtained? I have already said that I am untrammelled by any knowledge of high finance, but as a man in the street, I would imagine that much of the war loan will reach the Treasury in gold, either in actual coins, or in the form of cheques which the Treasurer can present to the banks with the demand that they be paid in gold. Let us assume that so much as £10,000,000 in gold fills the Treasury coffers, the balance of the loan coming in Commonwealth notes. Now, those 10,000,000 golden sovereigns are really worth £30,000,000 to the Commonwealth Government, for notes to that value may be issued against the sovereigns deposited at the Treasury. The gold cannot be touched, but obviously, if it is there, the war

loan will realise not £20,000,000 merely, but £40,000,000 worth of notes, which, so long as they remain in Australia, will be worth their face value. If he is able to arrange matters in this way the new taxation will only be needed to pay interest on the £20,000,000 borrowed from the people of Australia, and to make good the deficit in ordinary revenue. It will be remembered that the £18,000,000 borrowed from the Home Government by the Commonwealth was lent to the States, who have to find the interest. The £10,000,000 Mr. Fisher "borrowed" from the banks at the same time was apparently lent without interest. When this loan transaction is completed, if the above course is followed, there will be over £60,000,000 worth of notes in circulation, and we will, to some extent, be approaching the condition of Germany. And, so far as one can see, it will not hurt us a bit. I have indicated how Germany can finance herself *ad infinitum*, and Australia could, in moderation, do just the same. We are a great producing country. Our exports exceed our imports, and we will always be able to pay for what we need from abroad by the products we send away. Outside Australia our notes might be of little worth, but within the country, so long as the Government were behind them, they would not depreciate, unless, of course, there were a sudden panic, when anything might happen. That may be financial heresy of the most horrible kind, but at a time like this, at any rate, it appeals to one's horse sense. Another suggestion of the way in which money could be obtained is made by Sir William Irvine, who considers that the States' *per capita* payments should be raided. Many people will agree with him, preferring that the Federal Government should not be permitted to levy direct taxation, but that the States should do so to make up the deficit in what they get from the Commonwealth. Other means suggested for raising money are a 5 per cent. super duty on all imports, whether free or not, double postage rates, etc.

NEW ZEALAND NOTES.

JULY 21, 1915.

The month has been one of unusual interest. Parliament has been in session and established a record for silence. Never in our experience has Parliamentary oratory been so obviously futile and unnecessary. This is the day of deeds—words are too cheap to meet the needs of these over-charged hours.

In large part, however, the politician is making a virtue of necessity. Our politics have for some time been almost wholly a contest of personalities. No great political principle divides the two main parties; indeed, I doubt if, robbed of platitude, any prominent politician could explain just what essential difference of principle divides the parties. It is true that the Reform Government of to-day is the lineal descendant of the old Conservative party, as it is true that the Liberal party is godfather and guardian of the humanitarian code which the Conservatives (a few of whom are yet in Parliament) opposed. But unless something happens in the future, the line of demarcation between the parties is in danger of total obliteration.

And yet the proposed National Ministry is improbable. Writing at a time when the decision has yet to be made, I think a National Ministry extremely unlikely. The proposal certainly finds favour with a large section of the Press and public. But the case against it remains to be stated. Certain significant facts in outline will give the reader an idea why the proposal is likely to be shelved. Prior to the general election last December, the Opposition was almost completely ignored by the Government. The elections over, the Government was left hanging by a very slender thread. But for months there were hopes of increased strength. Three by-elections were fought on bitter party lines. In the last of these struggles the Government published elaborate reasons why its candidate should be elected to save the country from the Opposition. The appeal in that case fell on unsym-

pathetic ears. The Government faced Parliament with a majority of two. The election of Speaker and Chairman of Committees dissipated that majority. So that when the House is in Committee the forces are even, with the Chairman's casting vote in the background. Here, again, necessity is a vigorous adjunct to virtue: hence the National Ministry proposal.

The sins, real and alleged, of the Government are multiplying. Ministers find the war period a most difficult one. An outbreak of sickness (including several fatal cases) at Trentham military camp was particularly embarrassing. Mistakes have been, and must be, made. Those mistakes will be remembered against the Government of the day. Therefore it was obviously good tactics to make the Opposition full co-partners in the political sins of the period.

It has been a military month. The Trentham camp scandal has created unprecedented excitement. A Royal Commission is now engaged inquiring into the matter in the hope of being able to apportion the blame. The death roll runs to some twenty—a veritable tragedy when every soldier is wanted for the front. Influenza, measles, pneumonia, and cerebral meningitis constitute the foe. Meantime Trentham is under a cloud, and the bulk of the men are training elsewhere.

The first band of wounded heroes have arrived home in charge of Australian nurses. Each city has done its best to welcome the wounded and their faithful guardians. The wounded New Zealanders tell glowing stories of the heroism of the Australian troops. So, with the Australian nurses' invaluable services, the friendships arising out of the association of Commonwealth and Dominion forces, and the stories of the bravery of Australia's sons, the sentimental tie which binds Australia and New Zealand is further strengthened.

We have sent our hospital ship *Maheno* on its errand of mercy. In its sober white coat, tastefully fringed with green, it has sailed away to bring the wounded heroes home. Let us hope she will never be overcrowded.

WHO WILL CAPTURE IT ?

What Will Happen to Germany's Trade With Australia ?

Our cover this month shows a little sailor-man rowing a derelict raft, piled with German goods, to Australia, whilst "everybody's busy" in the background. What nationality is that sailor? Has he almond eyes, does he speak with a Yankee or an Australian accent? These questions will be answered in a few months, meanwhile we will try and survey the situation.

There is a general demand that in future no German goods shall be admitted here. To make certain of this, a special tariff wall is spoken of, so high that even the most cunning Teuton will fail to clamber over it. If Germany is beaten properly flat that wall will, no doubt, be erected, but if we end with a compromise peace, its building is decidedly doubtful. Germany, if she has the power, will certainly insist that her goods are not made the subject of hostile tariff arrangements. These matters, and the questions of contracts and patents, will be settled not here, but in the room in Europe, or America, where peace is finally made.

However, assuming that Germany will have no say in such arrangements, and the tariff wall is built stout, and strong, and high, where are we going to get the things from, which hitherto we have got from Germany, and to whom are we in turn to sell those of our products which Germany has purchased in former years? Before we can discuss the matter intelligently, we must know just what Germany has sent us. In 1912 the total value of the goods "made in Germany" we got was £7,153,000, whilst she bought from us almost twice that amount—viz., £13,800,000.

In passing, it is well to note that our own year books show that we sent only £7,441,246 worth of our products to Germany. Statisticians, the world over, are obliged to make up details of trade as follows:—All imports are set down as goods *made* in various countries no matter from where they are shipped, exports as goods *shipped* direct to these

countries. Consequently there is always considerable discrepancy between the information supplied by the official year books of different countries. For instance, whilst Germany actually imports £13,800,000 of goods from us, we only export £7,441,246 direct to her; the balance goes *via* England, Belgium, etc., and cannot be traced from here. It is the same with exports. We actually get £7,153,000 worth of German-made goods, she only sends us direct £4,350,000.

It will be seen, therefore, that we lose more if Germany stops buying from us than she does if we stop purchasing from her. Fortunately for us, however, Germany could hardly get what we send her anywhere else—spelter, wool, and the like. At the same time it is quite possible that a ruined Germany would find it impossible to utilise any of our products, which we would have to market elsewhere. In 1912 we got a total worth £7,153,000 from Germany, chiefly made up as follows:—

Ale and beer, £125,552; apparel and textiles, £1,915,135; arms, ammunition and explosives, £76,079; brushware, £31,750; cement, £114,504; chinaware, etc., £60,072; earthenware, £28,573; dyes, £20,243; fertilisers, £51,339; drugs, etc., £157,833; fancy goods, £151,077; furniture, £17,312; glass and glassware, £138,759; hops, £14,427; india-rubber manufactures, £222,042; metals and manufactures of metals, £206,478; plate and sheet, £70,402; pipes and tubes, £81,210; railway iron, £80,739; tools of trade, £37,874; wire, £340,936; wire netting, £174,534; machines and machinery, £281,253; lamps, £40,486; electrical and gas appliances, £60,922; other manufactures of metals, £621,698; jewellery, cameos, etc., £102,867; leather and leather manufactures (excluding boots and shoes), £84,255; musical instruments, £504,666; paper, £198,452; spirits, £28,012; stationery, £94,781.

Since the war began, where have we obtained these things from? To a considerable extent we have not got them from anywhere; we have used the stocks we had on hand. Some things have reached us from England, some from America, and recently large quantities from Japan. Whilst "everybody's

busy," the only nations which can attempt to collar German trade are the neutrals and Japan. The only neutral which counts is, of course, America, and for some incomprehensible reason many people would be almost as averse to buying an American-made thing as they would a German. All the same, they are glad enough to take all the war munitions the American factories can turn out!

Undoubtedly the United States looks to obtain a share of the trade we refuse to do with Germany, and, indeed, we can get some of these things nowhere else. America is purchasing every year more and more of our products, and it is extremely probable that much which has hitherto gone to Germany will find its way across the Pacific. The United States has, on several occasions, waged tariff wars with countries which did not grant her goods as favourable treatment as she considered just, in view of her own purchases. At present we have a very stiff duty against American goods, but she, on the other hand, has taken off the wool duty altogether. The result of this has been that, whilst in 1912 she imported only £1,920,000 worth of supplies, in 1914 she purchased £3,400,000 worth, and practically all of this was admitted free!

When the Republicans come back to power in 1916, it would not be surprising if they used the tariff weapon to induce us to give their goods favourable treatment. That we shall know later.

Japan is the one country which has seized opportunity by the forelock, and has now a good grip on it, too. Japanese Trade Commissioners visited Australia and New Zealand, and went thoroughly into the business situation. Shrewd, keen men, they learned a great deal, and gave out comparatively little. Already results have followed their visit. Formerly the monthly steamer which came to Australia from Japan was mostly filled with fertiliser material. For the last four months it has been crammed to the hatches with goods for Australian wholesale and retail houses. The public is beginning to find Japanese goods temptingly displayed everywhere. The smoker happens to notice that his matchbox was made in Japan,

little knick-knacks for the toilet table bear Japan's hieroglyphics. Motor horns toot with a Japanese accent, and so on, and so forth. Ere long we will drink lager beer made in Japan, not in Germany or Austria.

If the Japanese set seriously about it, they could undoubtedly get much of the German trade, earthenware, for instance, fancy goods, textiles, especially Manchester piece goods, stationery and expensive lines of paper and the like. At present Japan is not able to supply the wire netting and hardware which we have obtained in large quantities from Germany, but, once at home in our market, her goods will, no doubt, prove very serious competitors of those of our other Ally, France.

Drugs and machinery, wire netting and hardware we will have to get from the United States if England cannot supply, or if we cannot produce ourselves. It is fondly believed that Great Britain will be able to send us most of those things we refuse to get from Germany, but that is an incorrect assumption. All the German goods shipped here, in pre-war days, were the products of highly specialised industries. Now, before the war—for some years, indeed, before the world conflagration began—there had been scarcely any unemployment in the skilled trades at home. What workless men there were belonged to the unskilled, who would be of no use, for a long time at any rate, in turning out the class of goods we are talking about.

Britain has drawn her recruits, in the main, from the skilled labourers in her midst. A mistake, it is now admitted, but one which has been committed nevertheless. Now, great numbers of these men will be killed and wounded, will never return to their jobs. It looks obvious that, instead of reaching out to get new markets after the war is over, Great Britain will be hard put to it to turn out what her ordinary customers need. After all, we buy little from Germany compared to France, or Great Britain herself, and, presumably, both countries will endeavour to supply their own wants.

It comes pretty well down to this. We must either make what we want in

Australia, buy it from our Ally in the north, from our cousins across the Pacific, or permit Germany to continue supplying us. Japan has the huge advantage of cheap labour, and will easily beat the United States in any line both handle. The Japanese could also put their goods more cheaply on this market than could any Australian manufacturer, no matter how big the protection afforded him by the tariff. That is clear. The main, oftentimes practically the only item in the production of manufactured articles, is the labour. That is a great cost here, in Japan it is practically negligible. Hence the Japanese can always undersell. This means that, in looking round to see what industries to develop or start here, we must avoid all those in which there could be any chance of Japanese competition.

But here surely is a golden opportunity for Australians. Everyone wants to avoid German goods. People prefer to pay, so they say, far more for Australian-produced articles. Undoubtedly the Government would assist both by subsidy and tariff protection. A chance like this will never occur again. Surely we are going to seize it! What is needed, at once, is to ascertain the facts. A Commission or Committee ought to be appointed promptly, charged with the task of investigating the entire situation. It should find out what can be produced here, and then it should set itself to see that arrangements were made to secure that the manufacturer had a certain market for his products. The time is slipping by. There are others in the field for the Australian market. Up and capture it ourselves!

AMERICA AND THE WAR.

THE IRON CROSS.

Accursed am I!
A soldier true, I swift allegiance vowed,
My sword unsheathed in fealty
To Emperor and God.
By sea I fought,
Where England's giant armoured Dread-
noughts hurled
Defiance at my stone and sling—
The pigmy submarine.
And I fought well!
Repaid with fatal thrust their futile sneer!
Cheered on by King and Fatherland,
With blood-lust I was mad.
Then came the day!
The haughty merchant vessel crossed my
path,
My missile swift her vitals pierced—
Oh, God! let me forget!
I stole away,
Scant were the moments that for prayers
were given.

The corpses spread upon the waves
Like meadow flowers in spring.
There followed me
A woman clasping to her breast twin babes;
Their staring eyes the answer sought—
"How had we done you wrong?"
By day and night
Do those mute voices haunt me evermore,
Those icy hands my heart-strings clutch,
With horror fill my soul.
A summons came.
The Emperor himself would guerdon give
For enemies destroyed at sea—
The iron cross I'd won!
By madness lashed:
"Not on my breast, but on my naked soul,"
I cried, "the heavy cross is hung.
Oh, pluck it hence again!"
Accursed am I!
The curses of a King for weakness shown
Would lightly rest upon my soul,
Could I those babes forget!

Lillian Marvin Swenson.

"The above poem," says Miss Vera Deakin, to whom it was given by the authoress, a professor's wife at one of the Universities in the Middle Western States, "well illustrates the general feeling of those I met during my travels in America." Miss Deakin, in addition to accompanying her father on his journeys as the official representative of Australia at the World's Fair, travelled about a good deal with friends, so had exceptional opportunities of meeting

people and of finding out how they regarded the struggle in Europe.

It is, indeed, pleasant to learn from one who has left the States so recently that, despite what some would have us believe, the majority of the people are undoubtedly strongly in favour of the Allies, and that many Americans are showing themselves impatient of the "Note" policy, and long for the time when they can throw in their lot with opponents of German "frightfulness."

SVEN HEDIN ON THE WAR.*

Dr. Sven Hedin has been excommunicated by Great Britain for the book he wrote after his trip to the western theatre of war, last October. The action of the various societies, Royal and otherwise, which had delighted to do him honour, of the Government which had made him a Knight Commander of that most exclusive and "Most Eminent Order of the Indian Empire," of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which had been proud to confer on him degrees of Doctor of Science, in divesting him of the honours they had heaped on him is so unusual that one naturally turns to his book with great interest, anxious to ascertain the reasons which prompted these eminent bodies to adopt so unusual a course.

After reading his account of what he saw one is bound to come to the conclusion that the true cause of this action is not to be found in his writings. Certainly, Hedin gives expression to views which no Englishman would subscribe to for a moment; he criticises the action of the Government in bringing the Indians to fight on the wet and frosty plains of Flanders; he contradicts the accusations of wholesale atrocities made against the Germans in the British papers; he asserts that the German army is not inefficient, is not composed of old men and boys who have to be flogged into the firing line, and he insists that the wounded and enemy prisoners are well treated.

Because all the British papers, at the time his book was written, with but few exceptions, were full of stories of atrocities, of horrible treatment of prisoners, of the terrible exhaustion of the German armies, of their shortage of ammunition, and of supplies, etc., Sven Hedin states that in his opinion there has been a "systematic suppression of truth in the English press every day." Writing last year he warns Britain of what is happening, and says:—

The fatal and momentous reality which is slowly bringing England to the brink of a catastrophe must be concealed under an exceedingly severe press and telegraph censorship. Of Hindenburg's victories the English people have not the remotest idea. The realisation of the German operations in Poland is distorted into futile attempts to stop the victorious Russian march towards Berlin. The most shameful lies and malevolent calumnies are disseminated concerning the German Emperor. The Teutons are barbarians who must be crushed, and this laudable enterprise must be shared by the cultured peoples of Serbia, Senegambia, Montenegro and Portugal. The whole war is conducted on the English side on a foundation of distorted information and conscious untruths. The truth is as rare in the English press as lies are in the German. But do people really believe all that is said in the English papers? They do, blindly and absolutely. Of this I have been convinced by letters received from England.

That is pretty hot, but even such anti-British outbursts, which are rare in the book, would hardly warrant the action of the public bodies referred to above. The reason for what they did is not, I think, to be found between the covers of "With the German Armies in the West," but rather in the positive statement which has been made that the eminent explorer is in the pay of the Germany Official Press Bureau. A man employed to whitewash the Germans and vilify the British can, of course, no longer remain a K.C.I.E., a member of the Royal Geographical Society, whose Victoria medal he holds, a D.Sc. of Cambridge, of Oxford. The whole question is, therefore, whether he was paid for his opinions or whether they are actually his own views, given as a keen observer, and as a neutral of the very highest international reputation. If the former, no indignity could be too great.

So far as the paragraph quoted above is concerned, almost everyone will now admit that the British public was woefully—though not wilfully—misled during, at any rate, the first six or seven months of the war, and that, up to a certain point, we now must agree with the explorer, although he goes much too far when he says that the papers pub-

*"With the German Armies in the West."
By Sven Hedin. John Lane, 12/6.

lished conscious untruths. Distorted information we have to admit has often been served up to us, especially with regard to the condition of the German army, and the actual state of affairs in Germany herself. It is absolutely true, of course, that Hindenburg's victories at Allenstein at Tannenberg, and at the Masurian Lakes, were so belittled at the time, that, even now, many people hardly realise what tremendous military achievements those battles were. Consequently they do not give the Russians all the credit that is their due for the marvellous manner in which the Tsar's armies rallied after such sledge-hammer blows.

Sven Hedin is utterly wrong in his statements as to the untruthfulness of the British newspapers. They are thoroughly honest and truthful, but, alas! they are terribly misinformed. The following quotation from *The Times* shows this, and, as we know, is typical of all the newspapers not only when Antwerp was being attacked, but on many other occasions before and since. In a leading article on October 1st (Antwerp fell on the 9th), *The Times* said:—

The German operations against Antwerp arouse increasing interest though we are not at all sure that their importance is at present commensurate with the noise made by the bombarding batteries. . . . The assailants are only firing at three forts . . . and do not appear to be doing very much damage. . . . It is highly improbable that the Landsturm troops now in Belgium could make any real impression upon the outer defences of Antwerp while the Belgian field army remains in such vigorous condition. Even if the biggest German siege guns were brought up, and if the forts were knocked to pieces, we doubt whether the enemy would find themselves very much nearer the Place Verte. The Belgians are holding one of the strongest places in Europe: they must have at least 120,000 troops at their disposal, they possess an open seaport, they have only second line troops against them, their outer defensive works are the newest and the most formidable of all, and they know that the huge armies of the Allies are on the verge of victory, and must, within a limited time, come to their rescue. We do not think that there is any need to worry about Antwerp. Doubtless the graceful spire of Antwerp Cathedral and the beautiful Church of St. James make the mouths of the Huns water. The city presents incomparable opportunities for the more destructive side of German "culture." We can imagine the pretexts which will be

gleefully invented for pumping petrol into the Plantin Museum. Every German regiment now in Belgium appears to possess a special machine for squirting petrol into buildings, and to include a squad of methodical incendiaries, trained in the peculiar arts of the higher civilisation as expounded in the University of Berlin. Happily these products of "the warfare of to-day" are not likely to get anywhere nearer Antwerp than they are at present.

Now Sven Hedin erroneously imagines that this leader is based on a "foundation of distorted information, and conscious untruths," and contains "malevolent calumnies." We know, however, that the article, which subsequent events have shown to be a veritable tissue of inexactitudes, was written in good faith, and the writer was merely hopelessly misinformed, was not intentionally deceiving his readers; whilst his statement that Antwerp was an "open seaport" only showed that he had forgotten that, as the Scheldt mouth was entirely in Dutch territory, the river could not be used for military purposes, only for supplies. Sven Hedin erred in not making sufficient allowance for the real ignorance of the true state of affairs, that actually did exist, and, to a large extent, still does exist, in the newspaper offices in London. An ignorance, shared, of course, by practically everyone in Great Britain save the military authorities and the Government.

In view of the incorrect statements with which *The Times* leader bristles, the reader to-day might even feel some doubt about the special machine for squirting petrol into buildings, and hesitate to believe about that squad of methodical incendiaries. Reading that leader now one has indeed to search for one accurate remark in it! The forts, to which "not much damage was being done," were absolutely pulverised in two days. The biggest German siege guns *were* brought up, and the foe rapidly found themselves much nearer the Place Verte. "The second line troops," against the Belgian 120,000 proved first-class fighting men at any rate. The "huge armies of the Allies" were by no means on the "verge of victory"; ten months later they are actually farther from Antwerp than

they were then. There was a good deal of need to "worry about Antwerp." The German commander respected "the Cathedral, the Church of St. James," and, in fact, all the buildings marked by the Lord Mayor on the plan of the city. He had promised the Belgians not to harm them when the bombardment took place. It was actually the incoming German troops which fought and overcame the fires in Antwerp. Naturally the fleeing Belgians set fire to the petrol tanks, and what provision stores they could not otherwise destroy.

However, I have strayed rather far from the book under review, and must now leave the question of why Sven Hedin has been excommunicated, and deal with what he has written. The value of the book is undoubtedly the insight which it gives into the actual condition of the German armies, the methods used by the enemy in carrying on the war, and in the picture of the wonderful organisation we are up against. Last October, at any rate, it was generally assumed that the German organisation had gone to pieces, that their troops were short of food and clothes and that their ammunition was poor. Sven Hedin's book shows how far from the truth that assumption was, and, as Mr. Lane, the publisher, says in his foreword, "it is surely desirable to publish a book that for the first time gives us a comprehensive idea of the wonderful organisation against which we are fighting. To my mind, it is one of the things chiefly needed to stimulate both our workers and our recruiting." I have consistently maintained that those who tried to ferret out the truth were doing far more to help on the British cause than those who delighted to throw dust in the eyes of the public, so naturally I entirely agree with what Mr. Lane says.

Sven Hedin kept his eyes open, and tells an intensely interesting story of what he saw in the Argonne, in Flanders, and at other places along the western front. Occasionally he doth protest too much, about the splendid treatment accorded the prisoners by their captors, or about the way in which

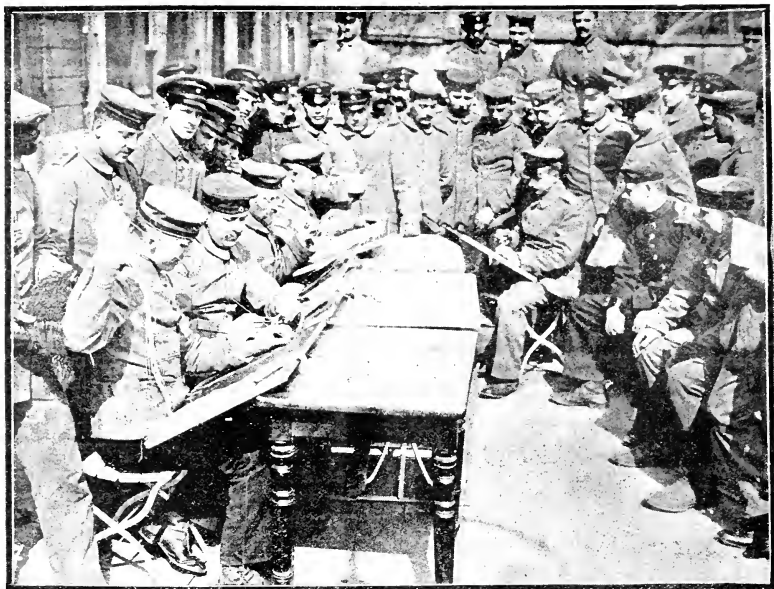
the civilians in the conquered territories look upon the invaders. He also gives too much praise to the various princelings he chummed up with, and every now and again he sticks a pin into England. On the whole, however, even the stoutest-hearted Britisher could get through the book without hurling it across the room in disgust.

One gets a bit tired though of having German soldiers always described as "magnificent specimens of true Germanic type," and so on and so forth. He is a great admirer of France, and loves her "intelligent, industrious, thrifty and patriotic people." The Germans, he says, are not of the type which is unable to admire in others the qualities which they cherish in their own people and therefore feel nothing but esteem for their French opponents.

He deplores the sending of Indian troops to France. From personal experience he knows what it was like to try and acclimatise Indians in a cold climate.

Great Britain has for nearly 150 years superbly acquitted herself of the task of acting as India's guardian, and I doubt whether any other nation would have succeeded in so gigantic an undertaking. Indian troops have fought with honour against many neighbouring peoples, and have helped to maintain order among the three hundred millions. But never before—until the present Liberal Government tried it—had it occurred to a British Government to employ coloured heathens against Christian Europeans. . . . One cannot help asking, "Are these Indian contingents really necessary? Do not Great Britain's, Canada's and Australia's white millions suffice, not to speak of Frenchmen, Belgians, Russians, Serbians, Montenegrins, Portuguese, Turcos and Senegalise negroes?"

Dr. Hedin has much to say of the spirit which animates the Germans. His account has, of course, been confirmed by other observers, and we may safely assume that every country now at war believes that it is fighting for its very existence, and that no one belligerent can claim a greater patriotic fervour than another. His accounts of the German arrangements for caring for the wounded, for transporting troops and manning trenches are all well worth careful study.



Convalescent German soldiers in a Berlin institution executing Mifram work to make their hands and arms pliable by rational exercise.



German soldiers recovering from their wounds are given systematic exercises to regain the elasticity and suppleness of their limbs and muscles. A military race.

GERMAN THOROUGHNESS.

FRANCE IN WAR TIME.

BY ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE.

Last month Senator Beveridge told of his visits to the camps of the prisoners of war in Germany, of the feeling animating the people, of the training of new troops, of the caring for the wounded. In the following article, written specially for "The Review of Reviews" in America, he tells of what he found in Paris. Specially interesting is his account of the spirit abroad in France. Some people affirm that the Senator is a pro-German, just because what he wrote respecting the conditions he observed in Germany did not please them. The present article in a way gives additional value to what he said last month, for it demonstrates that he is a careful and impartial observer. If we have confidence in what he tells about France, we are compelled to have equal faith in his account of conditions in Germany.

The revealing light of this world-changing conflict has discovered a new France, a strong, quiet, serious France, earnest and elevated in character. There has been a new birth of idealism; certainly this is true among the intellectual classes, and in the higher social circles. The French man and woman, from these sections of the French people, declare that this moral and spiritual phenomenon, so conspicuous and undeniable even to the casual observer, is nothing new nor strange; they assert, on the contrary, that this French attitude of mind and soul, its eyes fixed upon the stars instead of upon the gutter, is the old, the real, and the true French spirit which has been there all the time though unnoted by an idle world bent on gaiety.

"Paris and all France," said one of the old Faubourg nobility, a travelled gentleman of serious purpose, as unlike as day is from night the decadent and ridiculous creatures who have been held up as types of this ancient class—"Paris and all France," said he, "is like a noble old house of granite, with simple, beautiful lines, its foundations fixed in rock, which has been covered over with an absurd and ugly stucco. The passer-by saw only this grotesque exterior, and judged the house accordingly. We ourselves were almost deceived; we had almost forgotten the materials and outlines of the real structure. But, at the shock of war, this stucco has fallen away, and there stands the real Paris and the real France, solid, simple, beautiful, and enduring."

EXIT THE PARIS OF YESTERDAY.

Such are typical interpretations of present-day France and its capital.

Whether accurate or not, the future alone will disclose. But it is the calm estimate of the best thought, and the firm conviction of the highest character among the French people. It is felt even by the cautious observer trying to hold a steady balance of just proportion that one statement at least may be ventured with confidence: The visitor to or resident of the French capital never again will see the Paris to which they were accustomed. The old city of vanity and show, of surface and neurotic delights, of *ennui* and over-fashion, has passed away. The intellectual pessimist, the *blasé* in life and character, that tinsel gaiety in conduct which the sated mistook for pleasure—all this has gone.

None of these things is in vogue any more in Paris. The American who thought he knew the Paris of yesterday will return to find himself amid new surroundings. The serious, the thoughtful, the idealistic, even the religious make up the moral, spiritual, and intellectual atmosphere of this transformed city. A new spirit of industry, too, is in the air—or rather industry in a new guise; industry in the sense that everybody has something to do, everybody is doing something, and that something, noble, pure, unspotted of gain, and everybody is finding that the joy of unselfish doing is sweet and wholesome. To put it in terms which the frequenter of Paris will better understand, let us say that the smart, the flippancy, the irreverent, the idle are no longer fashionable.

"Our feelings are so deep that we can find no words to express them," said M. Bergson, the noted philosopher, the leader of the new school of French

thought. "Our emotion and our purpose," said he, "can manifest themselves only by a great calmness, which almost may be said to be exaltation."

All this was visual to the visitor in Paris toward the end of the winter of 1915, for Paris was a place of sadness and mourning, but also of heroism and resolve. Her streets were deserted of young men, as indeed is true of every town and city of France, and of her fields and vineyards also. They are all at the front, or in reserve depots, waiting for the order to launch themselves into the conflict.

"Yes," said a highly informed and moderate-minded young woman of one of the best families of France "Paris is deserted, and we are proud of it. We would not have our men stop behind—not one of them. Where should they be, if not at the front?"

And Paris does seem deserted to one who knew the Paris of old, with its crowded streets, its overflowing cafés, the whirling activity of its thoroughfares. There are many people about, to be sure, and sometimes the *grands boulevards* seem well filled. But the Parisian visitor of a year ago would hardly recognise the French capital of to-day, so great is the disparity between the teeming life of the place then and its comparative meagreness now. Also, the atmosphere of gloom is so great that one newly arrived feels it instantly and keenly, although the sensation wears off after a week or two under the anæsthetic of time and custom. This feeling of depression which falls upon the visiting observer is deepened by the darkened streets at night; for while there is light enough to make one's way about the central and more frequented thoroughfares, yet the city as a whole is very sombre after sunset. An American thoroughly familiar with his Paris found great difficulty in making his way on foot from a residential quarter to the hotel section. No blazing arc lamps longer flare, and the system of electric lighting which was wont to make the Paris nights so brilliant awaits the issue of war to resume its illuminating work.

HOSPITALS ON EVERY HAND.

Then, too, the hospitals. Hospitals! Hospitals! To one unaccustomed to

such scenes and familiar with the Paris of old, everywhere there appear to be these refuges of the stricken. Along the Champs Élysées well-known and palatial hotels are now the abodes of wounded men, and uniformed nurses have taken the place of the hotel attendants. Private houses facing this world-famed thoroughfare are now also devoted to the housing of the injured. This, indeed, is true all over the city. Calling upon a gentleman of great wealth living in one of the most extensive and luxurious houses of Paris, one found one's self among the odours of disinfectants, and the women members of the family arrayed in the costume of nurses. On side streets, too, the sign of the Red Cross or other symbols advertise these stations of succour.

And now, at the date of this writing, March 15, 1915, comes the order from General Joffre himself to prepare 150,000 additional hospital beds against the need which the spring campaign, so shortly to begin, will bring in its sanguinary wake. This in Paris alone, where also the boys' schools have been taken over to serve as hospitals! Such is the grim prospect the French people consciously and bravely face!

WHY FRANCE IS CONFIDENT.

But while Paris is depressed it cannot be said that the feeling is caused by despair; the gloom does not seem to be the child of hopelessness. On the contrary, the French firmly believe that the Allies will win, and the grounds for this faith we shall examine presently. But France has lost much blood; she is losing more all the time, and she knows that soon, very soon, the life current is to issue from every pore; and France has no blood to lose. It will take her a long time to supply the crimson strength already poured out so prodigally and with such abandoned valour. It will take a long, long time—generations—to replace the men who must fall before this war ends—a fact so well understood in France, and especially by French women, that one of the reconstructive results of this war already apparent is the purpose and resolve now openly stated by representative women of the highest class, especially among the old aristocracy.

crazy, that the French family should and will be very much larger in the future than it has been in the past. The melancholy feeling flows from the carnage already wrought and the greater havoc which they know must come. Even more it flows from their constant knowledge that the enemy is on French soil, that the war in the West is being waged in France itself, and the very richest part of France at that.

But the French have no doubt that they will win—or, rather, that the Allies will be victorious. For they frankly admit, and the admission is infinitely to their credit, that, standing alone, they could not prevail against their mighty eastern neighbour. They even concede that Germany probably could overcome France and Russia put together. But, they contend, that with England added, Germany has no chance against these three greatest powers of Europe combined.

FRENCH ESTIMATES OF GERMAN AMBITION.

And the French are ready to do their part in this gigantic partnership of war; they already have done far more than their just share. Not in the most glorious days of the great Napoleon did the sons of France pour out their blood with greater prodigality than their descendants have done up to the present hour of this mighty conflict. And they do not begrudge it; they are willing to give still more.

"To the last man!" exclaimed one of the first intellects of France.

For they are obsessed by the conviction that defeat means the extinction of France—its physical extinction. They really believe that France will disappear from the map of Europe if Germany wins. It has become an *idée fixe*.

The roots of this astonishing conception of German purposes and policy run back to the fateful year of 1870, and are fixed in the soil of Alsace and Lorraine. The French never have forgotten the taking of those two provinces. In latter years, they imagined they had forgiven it; but the war revived the sleeping rancour; the doctrine of *revanche*, preached for so many long years, though latterly abandoned, left its seed of dragon's

teeth in the French heart; and—so runs the French thought—if Germany wrongfully took Alsace and Lorraine by force when she won then, what will she not wrongfully take by force if she wins now? Certainly, Flanders, Artois, Champagne, and Picardy, the richest portion of France, and that part of the coast of Normandy upon the Channel, down to and including the harbour of Le Havre. This is the very least which the French imagine Germany would exact from them if victorious. Amazing as it may seem to Americans, and surprised as the Germans will be to learn it, it nevertheless is true that there are those in France who think that Germany would take the whole country if she could, yes, even to the Pyrenees.

And they are perfectly sure that Germany is out gunning for French colonies; and these, very rich, very profitable, and very well administered, are very dear to the French heart no less than to the French pocketbook. Just how this French way of thinking developed will be an engaging theme for the historian. Certainly the French think that the Morocco affair and the Agadir incident sustain their opinion. What they describe as "Germany's pounding on the table with a sword," got sadly on their nerves; for they are a highly sensitive people.

WAS FRANCE IN DANGER OF "GERMANISATION?"

Then, too, the more thoughtful believed that France was already being "Germanised."

"German workingmen have steadily been taking the place of French labourers, here in France, here in Paris," said one of the most dependable of this class. "German business men were rooting out French business men. The Germans were even buying up our land. This has been going on all over France," he continued. "And with them, these multitudes of Germans brought their industrial methods, their ideals of life, their so-called 'Kultur.' It is a fact that if this had gone on, it would not have been a great many years until they would have taken France."

This statement was so astounding that careful inquiry was made as to its

accuracy. Without a single exception, it was confirmed by those questioned concerning it. "It is quite true," said an American friend of thirty years' standing, who is one of the best-informed men in the country, and whose conservative reliability and cautious understatement are his principal characteristics. "It is quite true," he testified. "For example, many of the largest dress-making establishments, which American women suppose to be French, are in reality owned by Germans."

A foreign business man, manager of a large plant in a certain part of the Republic, testified that "the Germans were taking France in an industrial and a business way." Asked as to how this was possible, he explained, from his own experience, that it was due to the infinite pains the Germans took to supply just what their customers or clients desired, their patient labour, and prudent foresight.

FRENCH REASONS FOR GERMANY'S WAR-MAKING.

It will be strange to the reader that, in view of this rapid and solid industrial, financial, and business progress of Germans in France, which was giving Germany much if not all that she could acquire by successful conquest, the French, nevertheless, should think that Germany is making war to seize French territory, and that it has been Germany's long-settled plan to do so. This will appear especially puzzling when they reflect that it is the best French opinion that German labour, capital, and business were succeeding so well in France that, as French thinkers believed, it was only a question of time, and a very short time, when France would have been "Germanised," as these thinkers term it, by such peaceful methods.

Indeed, French business men and scholars I conversed with could give no explanation entirely understandable to the American mind. When asked why Germany should resort to war to obtain what she was already getting by peaceful methods, the answers were that it is the German habit of mind to take physically and by force the thing desired; or that it was the love of conquest for its own sake; or that it was the insane

ambition of the Emperor to rule; or that it was the working out of the supposed German philosophy to dominate the world; or that it was a part of Germany's plan to be the first, the leading, the compelling power of Europe.

WHY FRANCE HERSELF IS IN THE WAR.

As to why France is in the war, most will tell you that it is because she was invaded. But not all give this as the primary cause; and, indeed, most, after the frontiers of conversation have been passed, concede that France would have entered the conflict for deeper reasons, even though she had not been invaded. It is admitted that her alliance with Russia would have forced her to take up arms to aid her ally, as a matter of national honour. Stronger even than this is the statesman's view that France had to fight to save the principle of the equilibrium of Europe, the balance of power which Germany's growing strength already threatened, and which her victory over Russia would have overthrown. Running parallel with this and with equal influence in the French mind was the feeling, yes, even the deliberately thought-out conclusion, that if Russia was unsupported, Germany would defeat Russia and then attack and conquer France next, and after that undertake the conquest of England. "It would have been our turn next," is the common expression; and "It would have been our turn next," is what is said in England.

The belief entertained by some Germans that France's enormous investments in Russia, which would be imperilled if not lost in case of Russian defeat, was a deciding factor in determining France to engage in the struggle, is hotly denied by every Frenchman, and, to the careful observer, seems unjustified. German business men estimate that the French have invested more than 20,000,000,000 of francs (£800,000,000) in various ways in Russia; painstaking inquiry inclines one to the opinion that this is at least 5,000,000,000 francs (£200,000,000) too high. The best-informed financial men in France, who are not French citizens or of French blood, place the maximum of French investments of every kind in

Russia at 15,000,000,000 of francs (£600,000,000); but it seems reasonably certain that, no matter what the amount, France was not drawn into the war by the fear of losing her Russian investments, nor even influenced by that consideration. The French are not "fighting for their money."

FIGHTING FOR NATIONALITY.

Just as the Germans believe that they are fighting for their lives, for their very existence as a nation, which they think the Allies, under the leadership and direction of Great Britain, are trying to crush, so the French believe that they are fighting for their lives and their existence as a nation, which they consider Germany is trying to crush. Especially is this true of the higher classes and the intellectual circles.

Whether this thought and feeling, that French nationality will be extinguished, French culture and ideals smothered, and the French country physically seized and occupied in case of German victory, which so saturates the mind and heart of intellectual France, extends downward to the grass-roots, and is entertained to the same extent or at all by the mass of the common people, is not certain. Nor is it for the present moment material.

Only one thing may be said for sure of the French masses: They know that the enemy is on French soil, and they are resolved to drive him out of French territory. Whatever the reasons which brought France to take part in this Armageddon, the present feeling among all French men and women is one of heroic resolve that counts no cost too high, no sacrifice too great. This resolve is noble, inspiring, beautiful, and even touching in its spirit of self-sacrifice and high purpose. There is something almost of religion in the exaltation of sentiment, especially among the higher classes, who mean to go and will go to the very end, to the very last centime, to the very last drop of blood—literally that, not figuratively, but literally.

PARALYSIS TO THE MAILED FIST!

And the end, to these upper classes, is not merely the expulsion of the Ger-

mans from France; to them the driving out of the invader is only the beginning. It is not even the recovery of Alsace and Lorraine; "that goes without saying," or, "that is not to be discussed—Alsace and Lorraine, of course." Their purpose is to annihilate the military power of Germany: "to destroy military Germanism, root and branch," as one French statesman put it with flashing eyes. "We are going to make another war on France impossible; we are willing to die now, ourselves, rather than that our children should have to go through the furnace." Such are common expressions, and they are sincere.

Just how they will break the German sword and make the German hand powerless to grasp and the German arm nerveless to wield, is not clear. The bitterness towards the German Imperial Government affords a hint. And certain it is that they are making maps in France—redrawing the existing boundaries of all central Europe. Their quick and logical imagination has leaped to the re-establishment of nations. Germany is to be dismembered, or at least shorn of what the French think is not hers, and confined within what the French contend to be her rightful limits—and something more even than is to be done with her; Austria is to be torn all to pieces and distributed piecemeal according to race; Poland is to be made a kingdom with the Russian Tsar on her throne; Turkey is to be divided among the Allies, and so forth and so on. It is the same map you find later which has been drawn in England, where map-making is also a favourite pastime.

WHAT THE COMMON MAN THINKS.

But the views of the common people on this point are not so clear. "The peasant knows only that France is invaded," remarked an uncommonly intelligent French business man, "and they want to put the Germans out of France. Of course, they want Alsace and Lorraine back, too, now they are at it. But further than this, I cannot say. The peasants are very ignorant, and know only what they are told." A business man, not of French blood, but uncommonly well-informed concerning the

French common people, and especially what he terms "the money-making middle-class," gave it as his opinion that these classes of the French people would not be hot for the continuance of the war, once the Germans were back in their own country, and certainly not if Alsace and Lorraine were recovered.

All French men and women personally conversed with are absolutely certain that the Allied powers will be overwhelmingly victorious and that the Germans will be hopelessly and irretrievably beaten. The grounds for this belief are substantial, material and to the eye of purely practical calculation, weighty.

First of all, as has been suggested, France's belief that Germany will be defeated is not based alone or even chiefly on French resources, French valour, or French spirit, although she has displayed and is showing an abundance of all these. French courage and French steadfastness have won for France anew the admiration of the world and the ungrudging applause of her enemy in arms. It is impossible to say too much of French fortitude and spirit. But the combination of Allies is, the French think, a massing of power against which Germany cannot possibly prevail, and under the blows of which Germany will be crushed as certainly as a hollow globe of glass would be ground to powder under the impact of a monstrous trip-hammer.

Germany, they say, already has two frontiers to defend, and before long she may have three. Germany must keep half her army in the East to resist the Russians, half of it in the West to oppose the French and English, and at the same time Germany must make shift to send hundreds of thousands of soldiers to Austria. Worst of all, Germany must equip with seasoned officers the Turkish troops and fortifications, and sprinkle a goodly number of officers among the Austrians. Moreover, the British fleet is in absolute command of every water approach to Germany from the north, and the French fleet performs a like service upon the Mediterranean. In short, the French contend that not only is Germany surrounded, but by forces that are irresistible in numbers and in wealth.

Here is a summary of this reasoning afforded by a careful French authority :

RESOURCES.

<i>Germans and Austrians</i>	<i>Allies.</i>
<i>Men:</i> 12 to 15 millions.	20 to 25 millions.
<i>Money:</i> German banknotes losing on exchange.	French banknotes gaining on exchange.
<i>War materials:</i> Blockaded.	Inexhaustible.
<i>Foodstuffs:</i> Blockaded.	Inexhaustible.

Undoubtedly France is counting heavily upon enormous reinforcements of men from England. And she has earned the right to expect this aid; for the French have been doing by far the greatest part of the fighting thus far in the western theatre of the war—how much one can grasp in an instant by examining the battle-line nearly four hundred miles long, every foot of which has been and is being held by the French except a comparatively small space of thirty or thirty-five miles.

UNDOUBTED FRENCH RESOURCES.

To supply the men needed France has an astonishing store of soldier material. At the date of this writing, March 15, 1915, France has 2,000,000 men on the battle-line. Behind these, she has in waiting about 1,800,000 more trained soldiers. These are gathered in military depots or camps, located conveniently near the front. There are 210 of these reservoirs of men for infantry alone.

In case of emergency there can be added to these 900,000 men between the ages of thirty-nine and forty-five; to these could be added 250,000 men of the class of 1916 and the same number of the class of 1917; these men would be youths of seventeen or eighteen years of age, respectively.

France's financial resources would seem to be very large. The Bank of France reports a gold reserve of £160,000,000; and that institution estimates that the people have in their stockings the same amount of gold. It would appear that this estimate is generous in view of the extremely heavy investments which the French people have made in Russia. The inability of South American countries to pay their vast obligations on account of extensive French investments in that quarter caused a temporary disturbance in cer-

tain banking circles; but it is not believed that it has produced serious embarrassment.

EFFECT OF THE WAR ON BUSINESS.

Business in France does not reflect the apparently excellent financial condition of the country. Conversations with thoroughly informed and careful business men indicated that French business is for the time being paralysed. "It is badly shattered," said a substantial French business man. "It is practically suspended," was the opinion of the expert of a great house whose duty it is to keep accurately posted on this vital subject.

"Would you say that business generally is 50 per cent. normal?" was one question asked of a thoroughly informed French business man.

"No; nor anywhere near it."

"Forty per cent.?"

"No."

"Twenty-five per cent.?"

"Hardly—perhaps."

"You see," another informant explained, "most of our plants are practically idle because their forces are in the army, except of course those engaged in making war materials. Then, too, you must remember that the richest part of the country—our principal textile district, our best mining district, and among our largest metal works—is in the hands of the Germans."

It was the estimate of these gentlemen that it will take from three to five years after the war ends to make French industry normal again. The deterioration of unused machinery, the difficulty of reorganising working staffs, the supposed destruction of plants and the other effects of war upon industry form the ground of this unhappy view of the future.

THE INDOMITABLE FRENCH SPIRIT.

All this does not in the least lessen the ardour of French spirit nor soften the hardness of French determination, so far as this could be judged by those personally consulted. The only doubt upon this point was that already referred to, of indications of weariness of the war on the part of the *bourgeoisie*, and their eagerness to get to making

money again. While this was stated upon authority deemed sufficiently reliable to repeat, yet personal investigation did not disclose it. On the contrary, all French men and women displayed a determination quite equal to that found in Germany, and much fiercer and more vivid in expression; yet this talk is not strident and loud, or boastful, but rather tense, quiet, and desperate. It is deemed reasonably safe to say that at the very least the French are an absolute unit in their resolve to drive the Germans from French territory, and that to this end pauper and millionaire are as one man, ready to sacrifice fortune and life.

Also, it should be said that upon the issue of supporting the war, political parties have merged into one, although on other questions, even upon the manner of conducting the war, there still are strong party divisions. For example, in the second week of March, 1915, the Government was viciously attacked in the Chamber of Deputies because Paris was kept under martial law. And such nagging as this promises to be not infrequent. While the form of Parliamentary Government is observed, yet at bottom France is under a military dictatorship. "What Joffre says goes," was the statement of one of the most competent and dependable men in France. It appears that the commander-in-chief indicates what is necessary; the Government takes measures accordingly; and Parliament sustains the Government.

It is among the higher classes, however, that the French spirit burns brightest and with purest flame. Within the intellectual circles especially does this patriotic fire blaze in its noblest radiance. It is quite impossible to overstate the exalted ardour of these French men and women. If their heart and soul are those of the whole French people; if the *bon bourgeois* feels as deeply as the descendant of the old nobility; if in the peasant's mind there is the militant resolve which dwells in the mind of the French scholar; if the workingman and tradesman feel as deeply and simply as does the French philosopher and thinker, then indeed is France in battle for a war to the death.



Evening Sun.]

[New York.

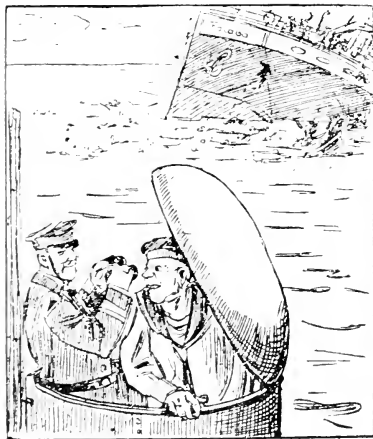
THE DROPPED PILOT.



Eagle.]

[Brooklyn

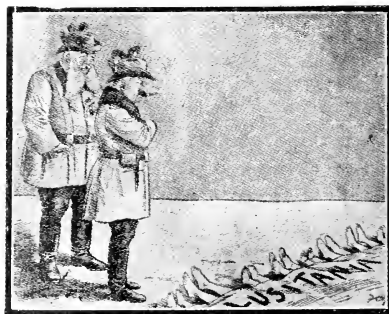
PLEASANT DREAMS, WHILE THE LUSITANIA SINKS.



Telegraaf.]

[Amsterdam.

"This is much nicer than attacking ships which can fire at us."



Westminster Gazette.]

HIS LATEST BATTUE.

The Kaiser is very fond of being photographed after a battue in his fantastic Imperial hunting costume, designed by himself.

HISTORY OF THE MONTH IN CARICATURE.

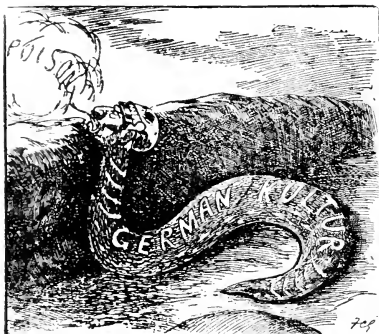
Oh, wad some Power the giffie gie us
To see oursels as ithers see us.—Burns.

The American papers especially have many cartoons about the *Lusitania*. Rather a surprising number strongly criticise Great Britain for not having adequately protected the vessel. We reproduce one such, from the *Brooklyn Eagle*. Most of the British caricaturists follow the lead of Sir F. Carruthers Gould in the *Westminster Gazette*. The neutral papers, on the whole, indicate that they disapprove of the piratical methods of the German submarines. The New York *Sun's* cartoon is a very feeble copy of Tenniel's famous "Dropping the Pilot" picture.

On the whole, the American cartoonists forbear singling out one or other of the belligerents for particular condemnation for breaking the rules of war. They show a gross figure of Mars doing all the damage. In that they are right, for furious war sends most conventions overboard. If, to achieve a

certain end, it is necessary to break rules—the rules are broken. Gould is clever in his "Puff Adder." There are many cartoons on the subject of the poisonous gases, but none quite so good. That from *The Amsterdammer* shows that the Dutch are by no means in favour of this method of warfare.

The German papers are furious with the United States for the way in which



[Westminster Gazette.]

THE PUFF ADDER.
Now Infesting Flanders.



[Tribune.]

[Los Angeles.

THE REFUGEES.



[Lustige Bätter.]

[Berlin.

THE NEUTRAL.

"But, Jean, you know I am also giving the
Germans something."
"What, then?"
"My hand."



[De Amsterdammer.]

GERMANIA'S CROWNING GLORY.

"The poisonous gas: Germany's newest and most glorious means of conquest."

she has helped the Allies with war material. These artists would no doubt be amazed could they have read some of our Australian papers a few months ago on the United States! *Simplicissimus* shows that, although Uncle Sam protests it is merely a formal



[Simplicissimus.]

[Munich.]

PRESIDENT WILSON'S WRAPPING PAPER.

"Here is a new shell. It is wrapped up in a little note of protest, but that has really no importance."

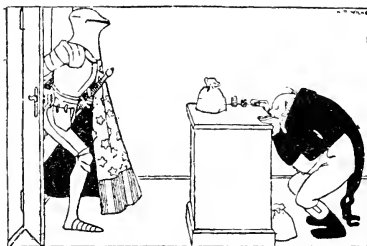


[Kladderadatsch.]

[Berlin.]

THE PAPAL ENVOY AND THE AMERICAN LEADERS.

"Tell the White Father at Rome that our great spirit is no longer called Manitou, it is now Dollar. Why should we bury the tomahawk when we can get money for it in Europe?"



[Die Muskete.]

[Vienna.]

(1) JOHN BULL: "Damn! here comes an armour-clad protest from America!"

(2) UNCLE SAM: "Don't be alarmed; I have only come to offer more munitions."



Simplicissimus.

[Munich.]

AMERICA AND THE VATICAN.

THE POPE: "How can my angel of Peace fly when you are always putting shells in her pockets?"

affair, munitions come through all the same. The Viennese *Muskete* takes the same view. Of all the American papers the New York *Herald* is probably the most strongly in favour of the Allies, nor is that to be wondered at in view of the fact that Mr. Gordon Bennett, the



Jugend.

[Munich.]

MONROE AND WILSON.

"Who is that boy, Wilson?"

"He is called 'America for the Americans.'"

"No; it is now America for the English and Japanese."

owner of the paper, has lived for years in Paris. It is a little surprising to find a Canadian paper making fun of the Notes exchanged between Britain and the United States!



Beck's Weekly.

[Montreal.]

ALWAYS THE GENTLEMAN.



Herald.

[New York.]

TAKE CARE WHERE YOU ARE TREADING.

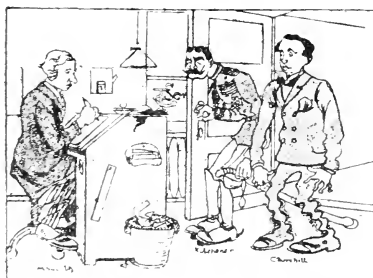


Lustige Blätter.]

[Berlin.

THE SEA GETS ROUGH.

THE GOVERNMENT: "And we thought we knew this water so well."



Lustige Blätter.]

[Berlin.

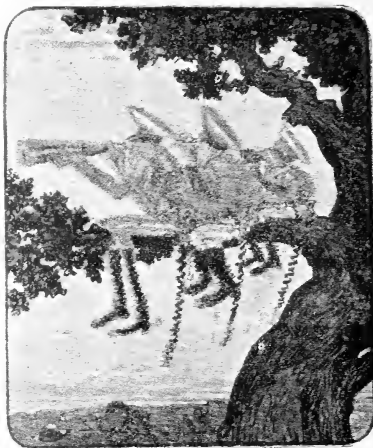
BRITISH TROUBLES.

CHURCHILL: "The dockers are out on strike, and demand an increase in wages."

ASQUITH: "Give them a couple of shillings."

KITCHENER: "The Russians also are on strike."

ASQUITH: "Give them the Dardanelles."



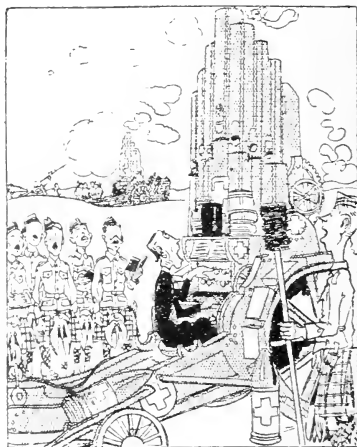
Lustige Blätter.]

[Berlin.

LOOKING OUT FOR HINDENBURG.

"Ivan Ivanowitch, we must be sitting on a trembling poplar."
"No, your Majesty, it is an oak; must be some other cause for the trembling."

The German papers naturally wax satirical over the formation of the coalition Government in England. As the alleged reason for the change at home was the shortage of munitions, and as

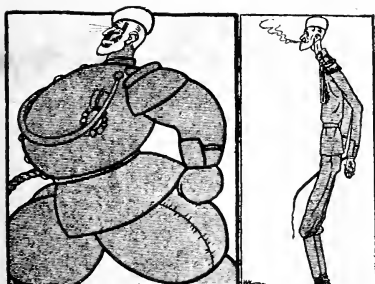


Lustige Blätter.]

[Berlin.

PERFIDIOUS ALBION.

Great Britain has under consideration a gigantic howitzer, which can be instantly transformed into a church organ. When it is fired on, behold a new German outrage!

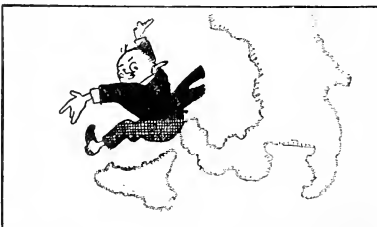


Kladderadatsch.]

[Berlin...

THE GIGANTIC RUSSIAN PLAN.

At one time Nicholas appeared colossal; he has shrunk a little recently.

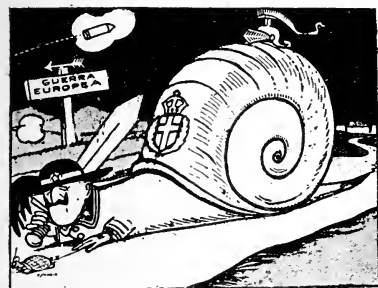


L'Asino.]

[Rome.

VON BULOW'S TASK IN ITALY.

The beginning—and the end.



Campana de Gracia.]

[Barcelona.

HE WHO GOES SLOWLY, GOES SURELY.

we knew nothing about there being a shortage until *The Times* boldly announced the fact, *Lustige Blätter* shows the late Government tossed about in a bottle labelled, "Times Ink." The same paper makes fun of the way in which men strike in England, and the way in which their demands are always conceded. "Looking for Hindenburg" is about the only really humorous cartoon the German papers have produced for many a day. Many people will be annoyed at the cartoon showing a British howitzer turned automatically into an organ, and shells decorated with the red cross. They would no doubt be surprised and incredulous if they were told that the German papers contain as detailed accounts of our firing on the Red Cross and so on, as do ours of Germans outrages of a similar nature. As a matter of fact, it is utterly im-

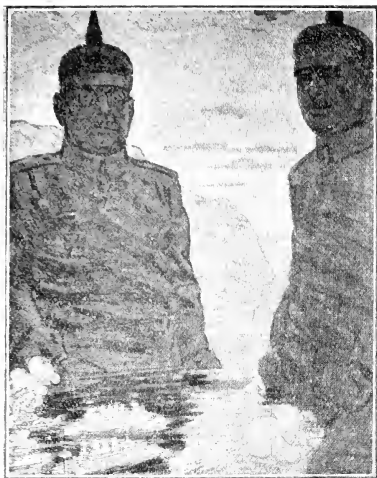


Mucha.]

[Warsaw.

BARGAINING WITH ITALY.

Austria is unwilling to give up her possessions at Germany's request.



Lustige Blätter.

[Berlin.]

THE WATCH ON THE DARDANELLES.

ENGLAND: "Goddam! these rocks have such a Prussian formation!"



Ulk.

[Berlin.]

ALI BABA AND THE FORTY THIEVES.

THE ALLIES: "Help, baba!"

The Spanish artist, whose drawing we re-produce, has evidently little admiration for Italy. *L'Asino's* caricature of Bülow is amusing. This month we have only one cartoon from the clever little *Mucha* in Warsaw, and it is probably the last we shall have for some time, unless the artist and staff can

escape before the Germans cut through the railway lines east of the city.

The continued failure of the Allies to force the Dardanelles rejoices the hearts of the caricaturists in the "Fatherland." The two rocks in the first picture are no doubt intended to represent



Simplicissimus.

[Munich.]

AT THE DARDANELLES.

THE FRENCH FOX: "Those grapes are sour, anyone can see that."

THE BRITISH FOX: "Anyway, why doesn't the Bear get them for himself, as he wants them?"

(The notice on the wall states: "Rubbish must not be shot here.")

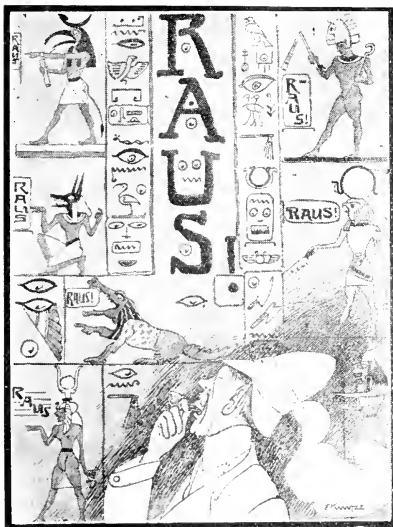


Cape Times.

APRIL 1st.

[Cape Town.]

BOTH: "They fooled me to the top of my bent."
—Hamlet.



Ulk.] [Berlin.
PROGRESS IN EGYPTOLOGY.

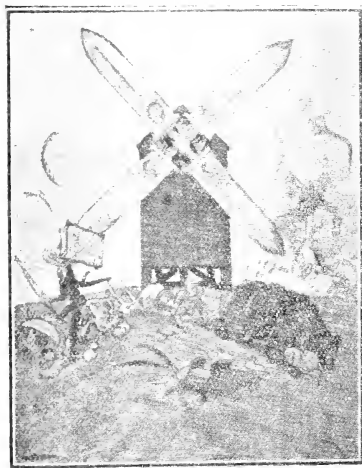
"At last I am beginning to understand the meaning of the hieroglyphics." ("Raus" is German for "Get out.")



Ulk.] [Berlin.
THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR.

"Destroy him, you Spaniards, destroy him!"
When May 20th arrives.

Field-Marshal von der Goltz and General von Sanders. In the second Ali Baba is shown floating bombs out to the ships, which seek to steal his

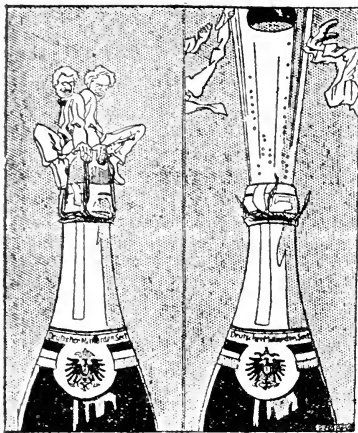


Kladderadatsch.] [Berlin.

The German-Austrian-Hungarian-Turkish mill received such a powerful swing from the Spring winds that it has become very dangerous for the attacking Don Quixotes.



Ulk.] [Berlin.
"WILL YOU ALLOW ME TO SEIZE YOUR
OFFENSIVE?"



[Berlin.]

A FUTILE EFFORT.

THE SOCIALISTS (Ledebour and Liebknecht): "We must attempt to suppress the German enthusiasm a little."

treasure from him. The grapes are sour, says *Simplicissimus*. The *Cape Times* wishes us to believe that the Turk was as much fooled by the German as was the back veldt Boer.



[Munich.]

THE LIAR.

FRENCH OFFICER, to wounded soldier (exchanged from captivity): "Were you well treated in Germany?"

SOLDIER: "Splendidly!"

OFFICER: "You will be confined to barracks until you are able to remember that you have been very cruelly used."

Not unnaturally the successful German offensive in May has caused the German cartoonists to assume an even more confident tone than usual. *Kladderadatsch* shows Duke Quixote Nicholas



[Paris.]

A SEPARATE PEACE.

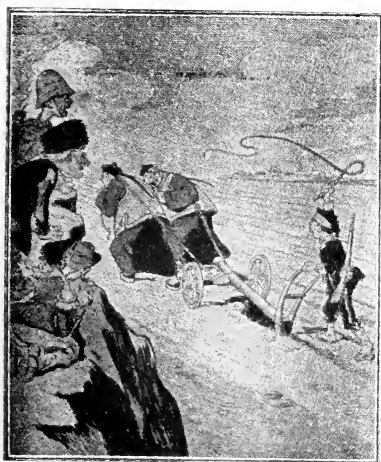
GERMANY: "If ever I catch you around this shop, I will reduce you to K.K. bread and water for the rest of your lives!"



[Johannesburg.]

A THOROUGH GENTLEMAN.

THE GERMAN STOUT: (to the British Bulldog). "You may kill me, but I mean to make a devil of a stink first."



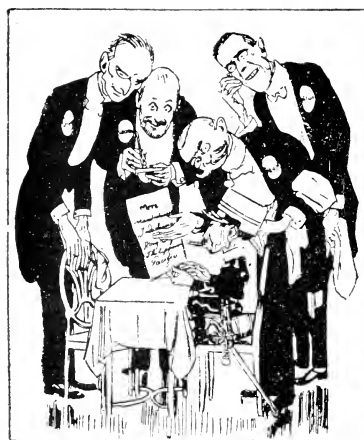
Wahre Jacob.]

[Stuttgart.

JAPAN IN CHINA.

How Japan seeks to fulfil her task of culturising China.

being swept from his steed, and Grey being knocked from the British lion by the blades of the Austro-Turkish-German mill. The cartoon "Ypren," probably appeared in *Ull* just after the Germans managed to wrest a couple of miles from us in the Ypres neighbourhood.



Lustige Blatter.]

[Berlin.

THE POWERS AND JAPAN.

WHAT WILL THE GENTLEMAN ORDER?

On the menu is written "Manchuria, Indo-China, Hong Kong, Philippines, Pacific."

The German papers have developed a hitherto undreamed of sympathy with China in the difficult position in which she has been placed by Japan. The Americans, too, are not at all slow to let us see what they think of the Japanese doings in China, "when everybody's busy."



Herald.]

[Chicago.

IN THE OPINION OF THE CHINAMAN, THE JAP'S TICKET CALLS FOR EVERYTHING IN THE LAUNDRY.



Dispatch.]

[Columbus.

THE DISADVANTAGE OF BEING BUSY, PEACEFUL, AND UNPREPARED.



The Minneapolis Journal.

THE GREATEST FOE.



World.

[New York.]

A HARD BEAST TO HANDLE.

John Bull is finding it a very difficult task to overthrow Demon Rum.

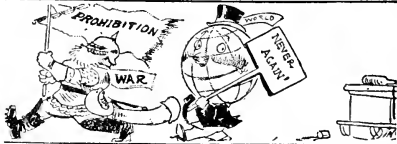
John Bull has not by any means kept his troubles to himself. He has shouted from the housetops that he is short of ammunition, and that it took him ten months to make the discovery. He has proclaimed to all the world that his workmen have been made inefficient through strong drink. He has announced that he is going to stamp out his "greatest foe," and then, forsooth, he does nothing at all. No wonder hos-

tile and neutral caricaturists poke fun at him. The *Des Moines Register* certainly brings out what thus far is the only redeeming feature of the war. Mars has been far more effective than the greatest temperance workers, the cleverest scientists, the most tragic sufferers from drink. Under the threat of defeat, and perhaps death, he has compelled the world to mount the water wagon.



Register and Leader.

THE IRONY OF IT.



[Des Moines.]

The German Offensive in May.

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS.

Events have progressed with extraordinary rapidity since May. During the intervening weeks, the Russians have abandoned Przemyśl, Lemberg, and other strategical points, have been hurled out of Galicia, and have lost their hold on Poland. Nevertheless, Mr. Simonds, writing as long ago as May 20, contrives to throw so much light on the situation that even to-day his article is well worth careful perusal. His description of the fighting in the West, where very little change has since occurred, is illuminating. Being a neutral, Mr. Simonds is able to deal with the whole matter in a far more detached manner than can any experts of the belligerent nations. He also has the benefit of reading reports, official and private, from all the fighting Powers, need not rely upon the accounts from one side only. It is possible, therefore, for him to arrive at a nearer approximation to the actual state of the campaign than we could hope to reach.

I.—GERMANY TAKES THE OFFENSIVE AGAIN.

In no month since August did German armies more completely stagger the whole world by their achievements than in May. Lord Kitchener had said that the war would begin on May 1. The world had looked with eager anticipation toward the western battle-front for the "Spring drive" which was to oust German armies from France, shake their hold upon Belgium, break open the gateway into Alsace.

Instead, in the closing days of April one more great German offensive burst upon the Allied front between the Lys and the North Sea, for a moment broke the lines of the French troops holding the gap between the Belgians and the British, crowded back the British upon Ypres, carried forward their lines beyond the point reached in the furious Battle of Flanders in October and November, and supplied the most considerable military operations since the opening campaigns.

Far more considerable, if less appreciated, was the German campaign along the Carpathians. In April the Allied and neutral observers were considering the consequences of the arrival of Russian troops in the Hungarian Plain; the victory of the Tsar's armies in the colossal Battle of the Carpathians seemed already assured. But by the middle of May the Russian defeat in Galicia had become a disaster comparable to Lodz or the Mazurian Lakes. The sole question that remained to be answered was

whether the Russians could hold the line of the San, to which they had been driven, or would have to evacuate all of Galicia.

In sum, in a single month the Germans, sending their main eastern masses to the aid of their Austrian allies, had transformed the whole face of affairs on the Galician battle-front. The chance of a Russian invasion of Hungary had been as completely removed as the proposed invasion of Silesia in November, which yielded to the famous campaign of Hindenburg from the Wartha to the Bzura. Measured by what it actually accomplished, it is impossible to contest the German claim that the latest offensive in the Carpathians and on the Galician Plain must remain a marvellous example of supreme military skill,

Such qualifications as may be made with regard to the western offensive—and it was in fact inferior to the noise it made in the press at the moment—are necessarily lacking in any impartial review of the eastern operations. For the fourth time, when Russian advance had become perilous to them or to their ally, the Germans launched against the Russians a determined and tremendous drive, and for the fourth time the Russian losses passed the 100,000 mark,

At the close of the period covered in this review Russian armies were endeavouring to stand where they had halted the November offensive of the Austrians, all western Galicia was lost, Austrian troops were again before Przemysl, were pouring down into the Galician Plain from the Carpathians, were in Jaroslav and across the San at several points. In a word, the Russian campaign in Galicia had been wrecked, Russian high command was no longer dealing with the question of invasion, of offensive, but solely with that of holding territory and saving armies.

screen. Their centre faced south along the Carpathians, their right extended from the Carpathians to the Vistula along the Biala and the Dunajec Rivers. Their left bent back from the Carpathians to the Dniester north of Bukovina. German strategy consisted in holding the Russian centre firm, while the two wings were bent in like the panels of the screen. As the wings were bent back it would be necessary for the Russians caught in the narrowing angles to withdraw to escape being caught between the two sides. If the Russian centre did not shorten and fall back all the great army along the Carpathians might be enveloped and captured or destroyed.

Thus the main German attack was made upon the right flank from the Carpathians to the Vistula, beginning at the Biala-Dunajec front. In the last days of April the Russian lines behind these rivers and about Tarnow and Grybow were crumpled up. The enormous superiority of the heavy artillery and the overwhelming numbers of the Germans made resistance impossible and the Russians retired from the defensive works, which they had occupied for months and fortified with the utmost care.

Russian retreat followed the roads and railways east from Tarnow and Grybow. Their objective was to reach the line of the Wisloka River, some twenty-five miles due east. This river, like the Biala-Dunajec streams, rises in the Carpathians and flows due north across Galicia to the Vistula, supplying a second natural line of defence. But so rapid the pursuit, that the Wisloka line could not be held, and the Austrians and Germans stormed the trenches, forced the passage of the river at Debica, Pilzno, and Jaslo, and still pressed on.

II.—RUSSIAN COLLAPSE.

The simplest fashion in which to describe the great Carpathian and Galician operation is to use the figure of a Japanese screen. When the operations began the Russians were occupying a position wholly analogous to that outlined by the ordinary three-panelled

The collapse of Russian defence at Jaslo had immediate and serious consequences. South and east of this town but a few miles the road over the Dukla Pass reaches the Galician Plain near Krosno. South of the Carpathians on this road great Russian forces had been endeavouring to enter Hungary. When

the Russians retired from Jaslo they uncovered the rear of these troops, who were facing Austro-Hungarian forces at the Hungarian entrance to the Pass.

Caught thus in a trap, large numbers of the Russians, who had been forcing the entrance into Hungary, were captured, while a fraction, so the Russians claimed, at least one division, cut their way through with heavy losses. A similar fate now threatened the Russians in the Lupkow Pass; for the Austro-German advance now pushed rapidly east toward the San. But apparently the Russians in the Lupkow were warned in time, for their retreat was reported. The Russian forces were now approaching their last defensive position in western Galicia, the line of the San River from Przemysl to Jaroslav and from Przemysl to Dubromil in the Carpathians.

But on May 15 the Austro-Germans announced that they had crossed the San north of Jaroslav, penetrated the defensive line at Dubromil, and were close to Przemysl in the centre. As yet the pursuit had not slackened, and Russian defence had not stiffened sufficiently. Already the victors had regained control of both ends of the Dukla and Lupkow passes, and the armies which had been fighting on the Hungarian side of the mountains to hold back Russian advance were thus automatically released and were pouring through the passes into Galicia to support the armies which had swept east from Tarnow.

Thus the Russian Carpathian campaign had gone glimmering. Precisely as Lee and Jackson had beaten in Hooker's right at Chancellorsville and compelled the retreat north of the Rappahannock, the German and Austrian commanders had crushed the Russian flank and forced the Russians to draw their Carpathian armies back at top speed. Only north of the Uzok Pass did the Russians still hold any strong positions in the mountains; and retreat from this pass was inevitable, as the rear was imperilled by German advance both east and west of Przemysl.

III.—ON THE DNIESTER.

Meantime a second Austro-German operation was claiming the attention of Russian command in Galicia. Returning to the figure of the Japanese screen, it will be recalled that the right panel, closing from west to east, represented the operations from the Carpathians west of the Dukla Pass to the Vistula River. The centre panel may be compared to the Austrian position from the Uzok to the Beskid. Now at the same time the right panel was being closed by the drive from the Dunajec-Biala front, the left panel, extending from the Beskid Pass to the Roumanian frontier, was pushed in by Austro-German forces aiming at Lemberg and Tarnopol, as the western forces had aimed at Przemysl and Jaroslav.

Could this offensive be pushed with equal success the Russian hold in Galicia would be narrowed to a little strip of territory between the Carpathians and the Russian frontier, steadily and perilously constricting as the two wings or panels were pushed together.

Fortunately for the Russians, this did not happen. After preliminary successes the Austrian forces were brought to a halt south of the Dniester and driven back behind the Pruth. Gathering all their reserves the Russians launched a vigorous counter-offensive in this region, with the result that the Austrian line here was rapidly pressed back and all danger of an envelopment of the Russians, of the cutting of the main Lemberg-Tarnopol railway, the life-line of Russian armies in Galicia, ended. By May 15 Russian official communications reported a considerable success in this sector and the capture of more than 30,000 Austrians.

There remains, as I write these lines, the grave question as to whether Russian armies can be rallied behind the San in time to defend this position. If not they will be forced back upon Lemberg, and will be turned out of the last easily defensible line in Galicia. Again, while the western forces are being driven east upon Przemysl

and toward Lemberg, the troops in the foothills of the Carpathians north of the crests are now being heavily pressed by Austrian armies coming up through the Uzok and Beskid and also striking at Przemyśl and Lemberg.

In sum, the Russian hold upon central Galicia has become very slight. All of Western Galicia and much of the Eastern portion of that province have been lost completely. In a military sense, the victory is tremendous.

The explanation of the Russian collapse is to be found primarily in the superiority of German artillery, German discipline, and German command. Reports that Russian ammunition is running short find partial credence. This handicap at least will vanish now that Archangel is at last open to Allied ships.

The foray of the Germans into the Courland, the taking of Libau, and the advance toward Riga may be accepted as relatively minor movements designed to distract Russian attention from the Galician operation, to destroy certain railway lines, to rouse a population by no means loyal, and not impossibly to bring home supplies of provisions, stored about Libau. That Germany, if victorious, means to annex the Courland is fairly certain. But the present invasion, now apparently completely checked, hardly seems a serious thrust.

Yet, again, it is necessary to remark upon the wonderful fashion in which the Germans, in the tenth month of a war of the present magnitude, have been able to multiply their offensive operations and at the same time cling to all the long stretches of lines they occupy all over Europe.

IV.—THE SECOND BATTLE OF YPRES.

After a month the military purpose of the Germans in the Second Battle of

Ypres remains obscure. The moral effect was instant and in a sense lasting. This was due to several circumstances. First of all: The world was looking for a British offensive on May 1, thanks to Kitchener's phrase, but before May 1 came, the Germans launched a terrific attack, which beat about the British position in Flanders with the same fury that had marked the November fighting on the same ground.

Again, there was no place along the whole western battle-front so well known to the Allied and neutral world as the line between the Lys and the sea. Here the British had fought for more than two weeks in November, when each day held out the prospect of destruction. Here the Germans had all but won a tremendous victory. Thus the press of many nations hailed the new attack as one more drive to Calais—another rush to the Channel. Germany, in their eyes, was resuming her Autumn efforts with the same end in view, and her initial advantages were hailed as the promise of ultimate success.

But did German high command expect any such result? This may be doubted. Less than 120,000 British without reserves had held this post in November without anything but the slightest trenches. Now there were five times as many British in the lines or in reserve; the ground had been fortified; and behind the Ypres position were many other lines. British artillery was no longer inferior to German. In a word, the day of rushes in the West had passed; and the British experience at Neuve Chapelle was a perfect evidence of this.

What then did Germany expect? First of all that Italian public opinion would be affected by the new German efforts at the moment when her enemies had said that Germany was at the end of her resources. Then, to the German people the gain of even rods in the direction of the Channel and a victory (however inconsiderable) over the British, was bound to stir German enthusiasm as nothing else could. Finally the discouragement to the British, to the Allies, if German success were considerable, however indecisive, would be great.

It might open the way to a recognition that a draw was the only possible outcome of the war.

Whatever the purpose, the Germans in the last days of April suddenly launched a tremendous attack against the Allied line just west of Ypres. They struck the point where the British army touched the small French force holding the gap between Sir John French's troops and those of the King of the Belgians.

The attack was preceded both by an artillery fire which recalled Neuve Chapelle and the discharge of immense clouds of gas, a new detail in civilised warfare which overpowered the French soldiers, produced something approaching a panic and resulted in the

retreat of the French. This retreat had immediate and disastrous consequences to the British, whose left was instantly exposed to attack, being left in the air by the French retreat.

The British left was held by the Canadians, who now had their real baptism of fire. Attacked in front and rear, assailed by artillery, by gas, by machine gunfire, they displayed a steadiness, a gallantry, a determination unsurpassed in the annals of the British army—earning them an enduring place in Imperial history. Forced to retreat, they gave ground with utmost deliberation, retook the offensive, and pushed back their pursuers from time to time. Detachments left in small towns and unable to retreat sold their lives with splendid heroism. In this struggle 7000 Canadians, nearly a quarter of the contingent, were lost.

This heroism saved the day. Presently reinforcements arrived; the German advance was halted, turned back. It had passed the Yser Canal; it had come farther south and west than in the other battle. But the net profit, when the battle had ended, was the gain of two or three miles on a front of five. The whole British position in the salient about Ypres was beaten in or forced to contract to meet the new situation to the West. But the line was intact, and the road to the Channel was closed. The gain had been more considerable than that of the British at Neuve Chapelle,

the attack infinitely better prepared and delivered, but the ultimate result was little different.

The real battle lasted for five days, but thereafter the Germans continued and are still, when this review is written, continuing to attack the British lines, which have on the whole Ypres front retired considerably, but stiffened as they straightened.

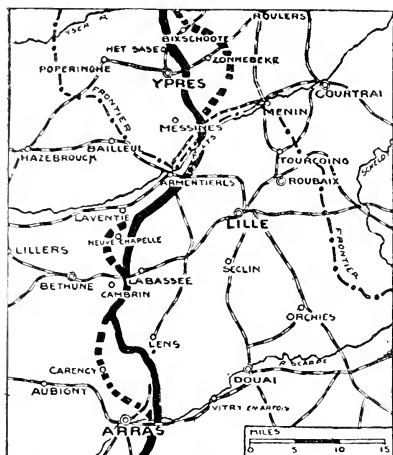
V.—IN ARTOIS.

In the East the Germans had relieved the pressure upon their Austrian allies more than once by a counter-offensive of their own. The German pressure on the British to the east of Ypres, after the main attack to the west had flickered out, called for a similar demonstration by the French. To lessen the strain upon the British, Joffre in the second week in May delivered the most serious and successful French attack that had been made since the Battle of the Marne.

The region selected for the French attack was that between Arras and La Bassée. The objective was the city of Lens, the chief coal-producing town in France. On a front of some twenty-five miles and west of the main national road connecting Arras with Bethune, the French took the offensive about May 10. From the end of October to May the Germans had held lines on three sides of Arras, which was a salient, subject to heavy artillery fire and merely a defensive position.

North of Arras the German line had been pushed well west of that town, and its extreme point was the village of Carency, which had been heavily fortified. To the north of Carency the town of Loos, north-west of Lens, had been similarly turned into a fortress. Lens itself was some five miles behind the German front, a centre of many roads and of several railroad lines, used by the Germans to send their troops forward.

The French attack moved north-east from Arras and south-west from the district west of Loos and Lens. The extreme western point of the German line was the little town of Carency, turned into a veritable fortress. On this town the French moved in three columns, breaking line after line of German



MAP ILLUSTRATING MOVEMENTS ON THE WESTERN FRONT IN MAY.

trenches, steadily isolating the garrison of this town and finally capturing it, with much heavy artillery, a strong garrison, and more booty than had been taken since the days of the retreat to the Aisne.

Toward Loos material gains were made, but here the German counter-offensive resulted in the retaking of some trenches. East of Arras, again German defence was too strong to permit any material gain. But north of Arras and on the Arras-Bethune road the French advance pushed east for some three miles, after the most desperate fighting, and the German official communications, usually very reserved in the admission of ground lost, conceded that the French had made material progress.

While the recapture of Lens would have been a tremendous advantage to the French and a forward movement threatening the German position as a whole in France, it remained perfectly clear that the Artois operation was primarily to relieve the British. Upon the Ypres salient there continued to beat a storm that threatened to end in the evacuation of the town itself. This would no longer mean the loss of the Channel ports, the disaster that threatened in November, but it would mean a

loss of prestige hardly to be measured by the military circumstances.

It was to distract German attention from Flanders, to compel the Germans to draw reserves from before the British to check the French, that the French effort was primarily designed. Its success was apparently due chiefly to the fact that the Germans declined to desist from their Flanders operation. Yet the limit of French advance was reached with the usual promptness. As a "nibble" it was quite as considerable as the German in the Second Battle of Ypres. In captures of artillery, men and material, it was the most considerable French victory in half a year, but, as usual, the operation, after the first successes, slowly died out.

More and more all these struggles were resolving themselves into artillery battles, into questions of ammunition. While the French were pushing toward Lens, the British made a new drive toward La Bassée, and gave it up because they lacked the necessary ammunition, and subsequently resumed it with material but relatively unconsiderable advance. Apparently the whole problem had become one of the amount of ammunition that the attacking force could concentrate at a point of attack. Not to the heaviest artillery, as Napoleon had said, but to the possessor of the larger stock of ammunition, the victory seemed more and more to be assured.

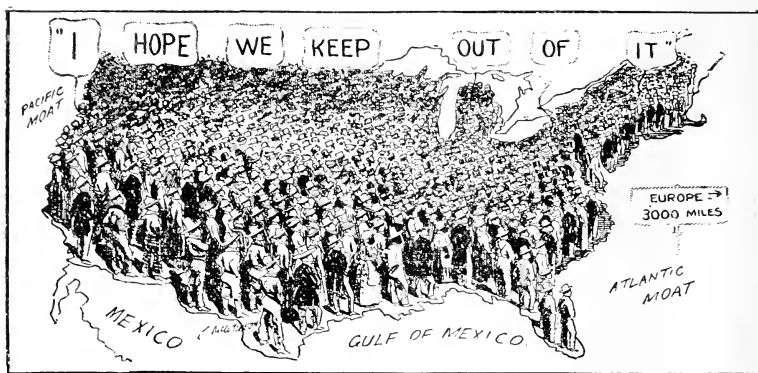
On the whole the French gain in Artois was a fair counterpoise to German progress in Flanders. The May fighting in the West was a deadlock, one more repetition of the monotonous "no change" of many months. Yet it remained undeniable that the Germans, by taking the offensive in Flanders—rolling up the Allied line from Ypres to the Yser—had effectually dampened the enthusiastic expectation of the British audience that with May would come a general forward movement of the Allied lines. May came; it was the Germans who had been able to make the first bid for the offensive and to fill the gazettes with the reports of new progress, however slight, toward Calais, toward the Channel, toward England.



GREECE'S STRONG MAN IN EGYPT.
M. Venizelos receiving a tremendous reception on his arrival at Alexandria.



ANTI-GERMAN RIOTS IN LONDON AN ANGRY CROWD OUTSIDE A WRECKED SHOP.



Evening Mail.]

THE AMERICAN NOTE.

[New York.

President Wilson's "Unyielding Combativeness."

It is the fashion here to decry President Wilson as a weakling, unable to take a firm stand, whose only reply to an insult is a Note of protest—some have even gone so far as to describe him as "an anæmic, feminised, closet philosopher." Those who know him of course scout the idea that his is a weak or ineffective personality; to them that delusion has always seemed the quintessence of absurdity. Viscount Bryce thus refers to the President in a letter he wrote to Hugh Gordon Miller, author of the book, "The Panama Toll Controversy":—

Besides the value which your book has for the student as a collection of documents, bearing upon a significant passage in diplomatic history, it has the further interest of placing on record the admirable example set by President Wilson, of the spirit in which questions affecting the faith of treaties ought to be handled. No praise can be too high for the rectitude and the courage which he showed on this occasion. Wisdom also he showed, and clear foresight. He perceived that one of America's greatest assets is her reputation for righteous dealing, and for loyalty to the international obligations she has undertaken. He understood the mind conscience of the American people, and knew that when an appeal was made to them in the name of good faith, they would respond. The result vindicated his judgment.

Your book calls attention to the testimony borne by the British Foreign Secretary and by myself (for I was Ambassador at Washington when Mr. Wilson entered the White House), to the fact that no pressure what-

ever was exerted by the British Government in the matter. To this I may add that when I reported to my Government the last conversation I had with Mr. Wilson, in which the subject was mentioned, I expressed to them the confident belief that whenever the President had time to study and master the issues involved, he would do whatever he felt to be right, and would not be diverted by any political considerations from what he might hold to be the course that honour prescribed.

Those of us in England who know America best, and love her most, rejoiced at the approval which she gave to the President's policy in this matter, not on account of any British interest involved, but because it showed that to be true which we had often declared—that no nation in the world has a truer love of peace and goodwill, or a higher sense of international honour than have the American people.

It is indeed refreshing to read what so well-informed a man as Sydney Brooks has to say about the President and about America's attitude since the war began. It is absolutely amazing to the thinking man to find how America has been misunderstood. Why, I have actually spoken to one of our leading legislators, who really believed that the United States was infringing her neutrality by supplying cotton to Germany, although he could see no breach of the correct observation of the duty of a neutral nation in the supplying of immense amounts of munitions of war to the Allies! That same biased way of looking at the actions of the President

has been general. Mr. Brooks puts the case well when he says, in *The English Review*:—

To maintain the indefeasible interests, not only of American citizens, but of all neutrals, and to convince the belligerent Powers of the completeness of his impartiality, that he may better serve the cause of peace hereafter, these would seem to be the objects which President Wilson has steadily pursued. When in pursuing them he has run counter to German interests we have been good enough to commend him. When he has run counter to our own, we have fallen into a mood of quite disproportionate bitterness, and into stupid misunderstandings of American policy, and the American people.

Another thing one hears on every hand is the remark that all the Americans care for is the almighty dollar—true, those who utter it have, as a rule, no first-hand acquaintance with America whatever, and are, therefore, able to speak with that authority ignorance gives them. Mr. Brooks, who has an intimate knowledge of the United States and Americans, holds a quite different view. He says:—

American policy is, if anything, rather less selfish and commercialised than that of other Governments, and the American people care very much less for money than we do. My judgment is, indeed, after twenty years of first-hand knowledge of the United States, that in no land is a leader who appeals to what is best and least material and most self-sacrificing in human nature more certain of a national response.

Mr. Brooks points out that the Rooseveltian philosophy is anything but the prevailing temper of the American people just now. The war has had a very sobering effect on the people; it has knocked almost all their old bellicosity out of them, and they do not mean, if they can possibly help it, to depart from their attitude of official neutrality. "Given the situation, it is difficult to see how it (the *Lusitania* crisis) could have been met in a finer or firmer spirit" than that shown by President Wilson. The Note he framed "was not unentitled to rank among the masterpieces of diplomatic literature." I would certainly commend this article to some of our hot-headed anti-Americans. Many things in it will surprise them. For instance, he actually says:—

I suppose there is no one in the British Empire who would pretend that our policy in these matters (contraband and commerce)

has not involved a certain straining of international law and offered legitimate ground for the protest of neutrals. Without exception the American protests have been mild in substance and courteous and even friendly in form, considerably more so, I imagine, than our own representations would have proved had the circumstances been reversed. Neutrals have rights, and it is very far from being a permanent British interest that they should be abrogated or overlooked. It is quite conceivable, indeed, that when the world works round to the task of rebuilding its code of international law, the American statements of neutral rights may meet with something like general acceptance.

Fancy anyone having the temerity to calmly say that Great Britain has ever "strained" any international law!

I have consistently endeavoured to point out the reasons why America did not protest against the violation of Belgian territory, did not sternly rebuke Germany for violating the rules of warfare. It is gratifying to find so capable an internationalist as Mr. Brooks dealing with the matter as follows:—

Another, and, in England, a very common error that the Note should once and for all dispose of is that American policy is governed by a hard and commercialised self-interest, that the authorities at Washington are thinking all the time how they can make more dollars for their countrymen, and that the American people, who have, both as individuals and collectively, a capacity for exalted and even undisciplined idealism, equalling, and in many ways surpassing, that of any people on earth, are in truth nothing but a nation of money-grabbers. I am acquainted, of course, with the various acts of omission and commission from the beginning of the war that have angrily persuaded many Englishmen of the justice of this charge. They have been misled, I cannot help thinking, very largely by superficial appearances and contrasts, and especially by the contrast between the passivity of the United States in the presence of Belgium's long agony and of Germany's many other violations of the Hague conventions, and the seeming eagerness of Washington to take up diplomatic arms whenever the commercial interests of American manufacturers and exporters were interfered with by the exercise of British sea-power. It is an open question whether the United States, in spite of her specific declaration that her signature to the Hague conventions was not to be taken as implying any departure from her established policy of non-interference in European affairs, should or should not have protested against the invasion of Belgium. The protest would have done no practical good of any kind: it would have been wholly inconsistent with neutrality; and its moral effect would have been little greater than the resolutions which the American Congress used to pass condemning British policy in Ireland and the Russian persecution of the Jews. As for the notion that it was the duty

of the United States to inquire into and pronounce judgment upon the innumerable accusations of violating the rules of warfare that the Allies have brought against Germany and the Germans against the Allies, that, I think, may safely be dismissed as one of the many absurdities thrown off by the madness of war. Had President Wilson lent himself to any such procedure—*ex parte* evidence would of course have been insufficient—he would have to have heard all sides, and Europe at this moment would be permeated by American commissions of inquiry investigating whatever charge any of the belligerents might think it worth while to hurl at any of the others.

Mr. Brooks carefully considers the question of America's participation in the war. He admits that most people now consider that the Allies profit more if the United States remains neutral than if she fights, but holds that for many reasons it would be far better if the Americans came in. American naval and military strength, if relatively small in quantity, is first rate in quality. The war may last a very long time, and the United States could raise, train and equip an army of almost any size she might determine upon, an army which would be composed of some of the finest fighting material in the world.

The controversy between Great Britain and the United States over various aspects of our contraband policy is quiescent for the time being, but is very far from being at an end. There are some awkward possibilities still latent in it. The pressure put upon Mr. Wilson to repeat and amplify his former protests is far greater than most people in Great Britain appear to realise. The danger is not inconsiderable that this war may end with the conviction fixed in the American mind that, except on the score of humanity, our use of sea-power has been little more mindful of the rights of neutrals than Germany's. That danger, with its risks of an aftermath of irritating diplomatic disputes, would automatically disappear if the United States entered the war.

Further, the embargo on the flotation of loans for the Allies in the States would be removed. The United States as a belligerent power would, of course, claim to be heard in the terms of peace, and this would undoubtedly assist Great Britain, thanks to the virtual identity in the aims and above all in the spirit of British and American statesmanship. Above all, it would cement Anglo-American friendship for all time, and would thus be by all odds the biggest event of the war.

TRUTH ABOUT WAR-BABIES.

Mr. James Marchant, the hon. secretary of the National Birth Rate Commission, writing in *The Review of Reviews* (London), roundly states that there are in reality nothing like as many "war-babies" as Mr. Ronald McNeill and others would have us believe. He is furious, and with reason, against Mr. McNeill for his statement that these children are "the offsprings of the heroes of the Marne," and that "he has heard of one county borough where there are more than 2000 young women and girls about to become mothers." It is perfectly obvious that the heroes of the Marne, who belong to the regular army, and who were preparing to leave these shores almost as soon as the war broke out, are not the fathers of these unborn children. Mr. Marchant continues:—

I challenge him to produce not 2000, not 1000, not 500, but 100 authenticated cases, with names and addresses, of young women and girls expectant by our heroes of the

Marne in one borough. I have taken some pains to inquire in several of the centres where large bodies of troops have been quartered, and in every instance I am informed on competent authority that the alleged evil is grossly exaggerated. I have made inquiries through doctors, lady health visitors, mid-wives, social workers who usually take these cases, and have followed up every assertion in the Press of the numbers of war babies to be born, and in every case I have found scarcely any evidence to support the flagrant exaggerations. Those who are in the best position to know the facts indignantly repudiate the allegations. I do not say they do not exist, but I venture to assert that, allowing for all the circumstances of over-crowding caused by a bad system of billeting, of the emotional disturbance engendered by the pathetic partings and the glamour of war, the number of lapses amongst our men has been little above the average, and that in many cases the women and girls have been as much to blame as the men—perhaps more so.

Mr. Marchant points out that the problem of illegitimacy is always with us. Most of the "war-babies" would, in his opinion, have been born whether there had been a war or not. He affirms that

"there is a wicked attempt to put the normal proportion of illegitimates upon the shoulders of our soldiers. They are very convenient scapegoats." He shows that there is a very real difficulty to face if the nation desires to help the "war-babies," and not the others.

It is obvious that we shall be unable to distinguish between illegitimate children during the war. All will be war babies; and that means we must provide for some 30,000 or 40,000 of them who are born this year. If the nation is prepared to do so, well and good. It would be a better and wiser thing to do than to attempt to discriminate between the illegitimates of soldiers and sailors and those of the civil population and to care for the latter only.

There is a phase of this subject which is indeed peculiarly painful:—

Some time ago I received copies of a printed leaflet which had been widely circulated, calling upon young women of independent means to face the odium of illegitimacy and bear a baby to some soldier to take his place should he be killed. The document referred to several verses of Holy Scripture in support of its patriotic (?) appeals. I am glad to say the author has now been prosecuted, and fined £100, and ordered to pay the costs of the prosecution. It is alleged that a number of girls have taken this step as a patriotic duty to the State. I gravely doubt whether such a motive has operated in any instance. But such a document reveals how deeply war shakes the foundations of the morals of a community.

Accompanying this new patriotism is a popular revival of the old demand for the legitimising of the children of unmarried mothers. In view of this Mr. Marchant thinks it well to set out the serious disadvantages of illegitimacy:

First, the death rate amongst children so born is abnormally heavy. In the returns recently published, I find that, of 1000 births in London the death rate amongst the legitimate under one month is 32.50, of illegitimate 71.45; 1-3 months, legitimate 10.18, illegitimate 55.04; 0-12 months, legitimate 13.91, illegitimate 22.02. That the prevalence of common infectious diseases, tuberculosis, diarrhoea, and enteritis is almost twice as great amongst the illegitimate, whilst developmental and wasting diseases show that in London of legitimate births between 1 and 3 months there are 4.97 deaths, of illegitimate 16.18; and of miscellaneous diseases the legitimate under one month have 7.66 deaths against 31.00 of the illegitimate. I notice that Mr. Harrison talks glibly about the biological necessity of these lives to the State. After the scandalous misuse of biological necessity by the German advocates of war the appeal to biology might be left

alone. It is not a popular or reliable tribunal.

These ghastly facts should make any young woman shrink from the mere thought of bearing an illegitimate child. Such a child is nearly always unwelcome. The father in 90 per cent. of the cases certainly does not want it. The mother, however much her maternal instincts may at first respond to its cry, soon finds it an encumbrance, which she is only too willing to drop; but she cannot. The girl who takes a false step quickly loses her situation, is frequently turned out of doors, is left to bear the shame and living burden and shattered health alone. She loses her chance of happy marriage, she is ever reminded of social disgrace and blasted hopes, and if she is driven by these cruel circumstances to the streets she falls under the law. What motive could lead her to strike a bargain which yields her the wages of death?

Naturally everyone would wish to modify these dire results, but we cannot lose sight of the fact that they are the strongest deterrent influences, and we should hesitate how far we tamper with them. Many people urge that, during war-time, such breaches of the moral law are to be condoned, but surely we have had enough breaches of law, international and moral, to satisfy for a century!

Mr. Austin Harrison, in "The English Review," frankly says, in pleading for the war babies: "For the time being there are no laws . . . for the while there is no morality in our modern civilisation." Therefore kill and slay and throw the reins upon the neck of unbridled passion. Surely this is the time to cling to such moral law as remains, not to throw it aside in a sentimental fit. And in future the women must have their say when these laws are changed.

My heart goes out to the victims of passion. They must be saved; but in saving them we dare not cast down the barriers which keep others from falling over the precipice. The best thing to do is to give all our attention to helping the mother and child. How can this be done?

First, there is one urgent legal reform which would meet a serious need, and which could be safely made. Our bastardy laws, which make it impossible for these children to be legitimatised even after the marriage of their parents, ought to be changed. I have spoken to many ecclesiastical authorities, and I have been assured that no objection could prevail against an immediate repeal, so that subsequent marriage made all the children born out of due season legitimate. It is to be hoped that the Coalition Government will bring in such a measure without further pressure.

Mr. Marchant advocates the formation of a committee of married ladies, in every district, to find out the facts

and help the expectant mother in every way. These Committees should arrange, wherever possible, to have the child brought up in the family of the girl's mother. He does not, however, suggest the arrangement of a marriage between the parents of the child; his experience

has shown that such marriages are too frequently unhappy.

Say what one will, do what one can to soften the lot of the unmarried mother and her child, that lot is unenviable. And the attempt to glorify it, especially by some women writers, is wickedly to deceive their weaker sisters and to lead men astray.

THE BELGIUM OF TO-MORROW.

A great city is ravaged by fire. To contemporary vision the event is sheer disaster, but posterity will see it in another light. Where wood crumbled in ashes arises the enduring marble. London, for instance, was not the same London after the *Annus Mirabilis*; some splendid Gothic monuments were lacking, but so, also, were sundry pestiferous rats—and the plague has never since visited English shores. Such is the law of compensation.

Senator H. La Fontaine, a well-known Belgian publicist, writes of "The Reconstruction of Belgium" in *The Contemporary Review*, not in the spirit of one making the best of a bad bargain, but rather enraptured with "the ideal for the realisation of which so many victims are now making without reckoning the sacrifice of their youth." At the same time this patriot does not seek to minimise the calamity of the moment, nor ignore the practical necessities of the immediate future.

What must be done for "the reconstruction of Belgium and the raising up of the ruins, moral and material, under which she now lies gasping and starving"?

The repatriation of her exiles and the reconstruction of her towns, factories, monuments, is not the only task devolving upon her. She will have also to reconstruct her political and educational tools, and prepare herself for the high cultural mission it will be her duty to accomplish under the new circumstances in which the world will find itself. From her extreme suffering will come supreme wisdom.

In 1910, at the time of the last decennial census, Belgium had 7,423,784 inhabitants. The annual increase is about 75,000 so that at the outbreak of the war the population might be estimated at 7,750,000 souls. The army should comprise rather more than 250,000 men, including volunteers, of whom 60,000 are prisoners in Germany or interned in Holland. A million persons left the country at the time of the German invasion, but

there can hardly now be more than 600,000 refugees beyond the frontiers in Holland, Great Britain, France, and Switzerland. The population now in Belgium must amount, therefore, to rather less than 7,000,000, of whom 2,500,000 have already become chargeable on public or private beneficiaries (sic).

When Belgium revives, what will be the state of mind of these various categories of citizens? Some will be profoundly depressed by the suffering and privations they have gone through; others, in spite of their courage, will be destitute of all things and in a condition of undeserved misery; a great number will have become unaccustomed to any effort, or will be physically reduced. A large section of the population, which may be estimated at a third or two-fifths of the whole, will be in such a position as to run the risk of becoming abnormal, an easy prey to the worst suggestions.

The writer sees a sovereign remedy for these moral ills in the stimulation of "the legitimate hopes which Belgium may and should have of living a life of greater intensity, nobility, and beauty." Before unfolding his ideas as to what shape this prospective moral renaissance should assume, the writer takes stock of the country's material resources and needs.

It is difficult to calculate the number of dwellings reduced to ashes or in ruins. According to information received of the provinces of Luxembourg and Brabant, and adding to that the towns of Dinant, Monceau, Tamines, Termonde, Ypres, Dixmude, and Nieuport, we reckon already more than ten thousand houses destroyed or rendered uninhabitable. No precise information exists as to the number of churches demolished or damaged, or as to the factories and workshops, hospitals, stations, schools, mills, farms. The burning of the university library at Louvain, and the bombardment of the Halles at Ypres, have specially caught public attention, but a number of buildings in other places have been subjected to terrible outrages.

However, in most places there can be no question of building towns *de novo*, because the old towns still stand. In 1910 Belgium contained 1,536,336 dwellings. Estimating the number destroyed during the war at 30,000, and

bearing in mind that certain towns are totally, or almost totally, in ruins, the proportion of property destroyed in other places will probably be not more than 1 per cent.

We must also take account of the fact that the houses of the labourers and of the bourgeois classes are mostly of extremely simple architecture, and that it would be exceedingly difficult to induce their proprietors to modify the traditional form of their dwellings; this form is also conditioned by the materials available in the first instance; bricks and tiles in the Flemish plain, calcareous stone and slate in the mountain regions. The population is also very independent in character, and each man prefers to act according to his fancy on the bit of ground which belongs to him. . . .

A more important problem is that which envisages the reconstruction of places which have been entirely destroyed. For instance, should certain historical buildings be rebuilt, and the ancient framework, which used to constitute their value, be constructed around them? The question is specially urgent in the case of Ypres, and my reply is clearly—yes. It will be remembered that a similar discussion took place on the subject of the Campanile of St. Mark's, Venice, but no one disputes now that it was right to rebuild it. The position is not quite the same with regard to Dixmude, Nieupoort, Termonde, Aerschot, Louvain, and Lierre. These towns, in spite of their curious and picturesque aspect, had not the same historic or artistic value as Ypres, and their transformation into modern cities may be more easily imagined, if such is the desire of their inhabitants.

There will be an opportunity here for modern methods of town-planning, provided the reconstituted authorities are able to take action soon enough—i.e., before the inhabitants have proceeded too far with the work of reconstruction according to their individual notions.

Another more serious problem, which lies before Belgium is the economic question. Not only is her industrial, and still more her agricultural, machinery seriously damaged, but all commercial relations have been paralysed, and the outside markets have been entirely closed to a country whose international exchanges were per head of the population the highest in the world.

Industrial losses include the burning down of factories and the loss of machinery carried away to Germany and Austria. Agriculture is, for the moment, almost completely ruined. Millions of domestic animals have been requisitioned. The demands of the invaders and the necessities of the population have resulted in the depletion of the reserves of grain ordinarily kept to insure regular sowings. Even with much aid from the outside world, it will

be no easy task to restock the country with animal and vegetable commodities adapted to the soil and climate.

In consequence of the ruin of highways and railways, of railway rolling-stock and other vehicles, including automobiles, "the whole of the arterial network of the country will have its vivifying stream slowed down for months, and because of this situation we shall probably see a prolongation of the industrial and agricultural anemia from which the Belgian nation is suffering so cruelly at this moment."

Belgium will no doubt be able to realise the indemnity to which she has a right, but it is also possible that the vanquished will be depleted to such a point that their credit will no longer be negotiable, or negotiable only at a very high rate. . . . We consider that it is a case of emergency where a debt of honour is due from the whole of humanity. Belgium has really sacrificed herself to avert from the world the domination of an unscrupulous autocracy. The world has a moral obligation to her, and it is for the totality of the states to guarantee the loan which Belgium must contract.

Compensation in the shape of an increase of territory has been suggested, but the writer deprecates such a plan.

Last, but not least, Belgium stands ready to confer new benefits upon the world, and incidentally to confirm her own moral regeneration, by becoming in fact what she has long been potentially—the great centre of internationalism. "Belgium must become the chosen land for the *entente cordiale* amongst the peoples." The first international congresses were held on her territory, and she has given birth to such undertakings as the Parliamentary Union and the Union des Associations Internationales, "which has as its object the co-ordination of efforts which tend to secure over the whole surface of the globe the co-operation of the citizens of all countries in all the departments of human activity." (The writer is one of the secretaries of this Union.)

What more fitting monument could be erected in memory of the great war, asks the Senator, than a world laboratory, on Belgian soil, "where all those who labour for the progress of civilisation may meet and agree together"?

It would be the international city, the cosmopolitan town, the world metropolis—Geopolis.

PLAIN SPEAKING.

Mr. Austin Harrison does some plain speaking in *The English Review*. It is not a popular thing to tell people the truth, that I have learned during the last few months, but nevertheless some few, very few, editors have endeavoured to deal faithfully with their readers ever since the war began. One of the most brilliant of these is Mr. Harrison, who in that respect at any rate is a chip of the old block. In an article urging conscription, he gives a general survey of the present situation, which is enough to cause even the most optimistic most "furiously to think."

The Allies, on the Western front, have now five months of continuous battles before them in the best available climatic conditions. In the coming summer months the fiercest and greatest struggle in history will be fought out, a struggle which will strain the resources of all the Allies in men and material to their full strength. The silly notion that the Germans are "done," that they want peace, and are disheartened, that they are ill-fed and ill-provided with arms, and that at the first determined onslaught they will crumple up and run—this we may as well at once dismiss. Such a *nouve* view of the war is in the highest degree offensive to our soldiers fighting there, as never before in all our history, for home and country. As we can all see, the Germans are terribly powerful, brave, and determined; above all, they are terribly well-equipped for the murderous technique of modern scientific war.

Mr. Harrison scornfully refers to the talk of experts when war broke out, as indeed he can, for he was never of those who delighted to "throw dust in the eyes" of a public which called for dust and more dust all the time.

Copper—the Germans had no copper. Hunger—the Germans were living on potato bread. Munitions and arms—the Germans were using rifles of the 'eighties pattern and half their shells failed to burst. Cotton—here the Government admitted that the Germans had so much cotton it hardly seemed of any use to declare it contraband. And so on: the usual crop of war rumours, falsities and delusions. The Russian millions!—they poured through England; millions of them were swarming over the Carpathians, pressing on the fleeing Hungarians. The Austro-German Empire was to be mopped up and re-mapped by mid-winter—and so on and so forth.

All the talk about the want of copper, about starvation, about antiquated rifles,

rotten shells, diseased Landsturmiers, and puny boys was mere talk, as even "Eye-Witness" would to-day faintly admit. Mr. Harrison's view of the Russian situation—and he was writing nearly two months ago when the Tsar's generals were supreme in Galicia, is startlingly pessimistic. He says:—

Personally, I hold that to rely on Russia is a very dangerous expedient, besides being unheroic and unworthy of this race. We must remember that the Russians have now lost the flower of their active armies, an enormous number of officers, a fabulous number of prisoners. Russia's difficulties are many and serious. We are inclined to point to her millions and think that they are sufficient. That is not so. Numbers alone against modern weapons do not suffice. Astonishing as the Russian morale undoubtedly is, magnificent as the Russian soldiery are, they, too, have seriously suffered as an offensive fighting force. The idea that all we have to do is to hold the line in France until the Russians burst through is to form a false estimate of the German resisting power, though, of course, this is only a personal opinion. None the less, it is a deliberate one, based upon years of careful study of Germany and the German people. For a war of this kind, now admitted on all sides to be a war of attrition and exhaustion—military, economic, and political—the Germans are by no means so badly constituted as many of us would seem to imagine. They have prepared for it: they are prepared for it. Moreover, they have no secondary interests to impair the unity of their strength. In Germany all is military; the whole Austro-German Empire is to-day a giant fabric and nursery of war, producing and fighting as one single machine concentrated upon the purpose in view. As Frederick the Great fought all Europe for seven years, so conceivably may the German peoples to-day. Those who count upon a debacle are ignorant of Germany. It is for us now to assume the offensive. Hideous battles must be fought, hideous losses must be faced, hideous sacrifices endured.

The article is a great plea for conscription. We need men, we can only get them that way. We cannot starve Germany, we have got to smash her. "If we cannot turn Germany out of Belgium, war will continue indefinitely between Britain and Germany even if France should make peace and Russia retire from hostilities." Therefore, says Mr. Harrison in effect, we must be prepared to carry on the struggle alone; to do that we must have conscription. Dare even the man with the blindest

faith in the ability of Britains to "muddle through" believe that Great Britain alone could crush so horribly efficient a foe, after she had failed so to do with the help of the two most powerful military nations in the world?

When the war began we belittled Germany and her methods. Now we copy her, and admit that for war purposes at any rate she is the model all must follow. One cannot but wonder whether it is not possible that her thorough organisation in commerce has not also given her the victory in the markets of the world, and to speculate on the advisability of copying her in this

also. As the horrible struggle goes on, instead of crushing out that very military autocracy the Allies set out to slay, behold, they are themselves beginning to set up a similar institution! The fundamental difference between Germany and Great Britain is that the German puts the State first and only has entire liberty of action after he has conformed to its somewhat rigid demands; the Britain on the other hand puts his own liberty first and the State second. A far more comfortable method, but one that has little chance when nations clash whether in peace or war.

AMMUNITION AND THE "LUSITANIA."

Writing on the sinking of the *Lusitania* from the military point of view in the *American Review of Reviews*, Mr. Frank Simonds says:—

While the main problem raised by the sinking of the *Lusitania* lies outside the field of the reporter of military and naval operations, there is one detail which deserves his attention. The recent months of the war have fully established one thing. The contestant willing and able to expend unlimited ammunition and sacrifice a large number of lives can at any point in the western battle-front harvest local advantages from an offensive. This is the lesson of all the "nibbling" operations on both sides—the lesson of Neuve Chapelle and of the second Battle of Ypres.

At Neuve Chapelle the British burned in three days more powder than in the whole Boer War. Their operation to support the French advance to Lens, in May, broke down because of a shortage of ammunition. Now in this situation it became imperative for both contestants to do everything possible first to increase their own supplies of ammunition, and second to interrupt the supplies of their opponent.

Exactly here is where the advantage of sea-power is decisive. Thanks to it, England and France (and also Russia, when her ports are ice-free) are able to draw on the whole neutral world for ammunition. In the United States, the manufacture has increased with the ut-

most rapidity. In effect, all powder-producing neutrals—but chiefly the United States—have been transformed into allies of the opponents of Germany, while still acting in perfect accord with the spirit and letter of the laws prescribing the duties of neutrals.

In the minds of many, particularly in the minds of many Germans, this aid is likely to prove the decisive factor in the war. Thanks to the unlimited resources of the United States for the production of ammunition, the advantage of the Allies over Germany in the matter of ammunition seems bound to increase until it becomes overwhelming on the western front; and it is therefore imperative that the stream should be interrupted. To do this Germany has no other weapon than the submarine.

In February, when Germany had put her submarine "blockade" into effect, there had been much Allied talk about "starvation" in Germany—idle talk, as was soon proven. In May there is no evidence that Germany is lacking in food supply or likely in any immediate present to need food from the outside to keep her civilian population alive. But to raise the question of food seemed to the Germans in February a method of stirring the sympathy of neutrals, and of making a case against the British.

Yet it is plain that then and now the real question is not one of food but of ammunition. Germany is fighting for her life. Whatever else may be said of

the rights and wrongs of the conflict, it is patent that this conflict daily becomes more terrible in its perils for the Germans, if they are defeated. To the German mind, the ammunition coming to the Allies, chiefly from the United States, may decide the war. Many British observers and not a few Americans hold the same view. Hence the determination to stop the inflow of ammunition into France and England at any cost. This better explains the incident of the *Lusitania* than any other reason. Nothing could justify that affair. Of this all Americans are certain. But the explanation found in the ammunition situation in part explains German recklessness.

We shall do well to think of the German point of view in this respect. International law was written before the submarine; and, before the submarine, Germany would have been helpless in the face of British sea-power. Now she has in her undersea boats one weapon, not sufficient to interrupt the whole flow of ammunition, but conceivably sufficient to reduce the amount materially. British passenger ships carrying this am-

munition also transport American passengers. To the Germans, these passengers are comparable with the women and children used by troops occasionally and in defiance of all international law to protect them from the fire of the enemy, when they are on hostile soil.

Between the *Lusitania* tragedy and the more recent conflicts in the western battlefield, there is then a very clear connection. Since battles are going to those who have the larger supply of shells, the Germans see defeat possible, perhaps probable, if they cannot prevent America from supplying their enemies. To prevent this they have adopted a course unworthy of the worst savages; but it remains patent that had they endeavoured to persuade the American Government to prevent its nationals from travelling on belligerent ships carrying ammunition, using ordinary diplomatic channels and methods, they might easily have obtained sympathetic hearing for a case that is not without its appeal, not under existing international law, but under circumstances which have insured the repeal of much of this code, when peace shall come.



Evening Ledger.

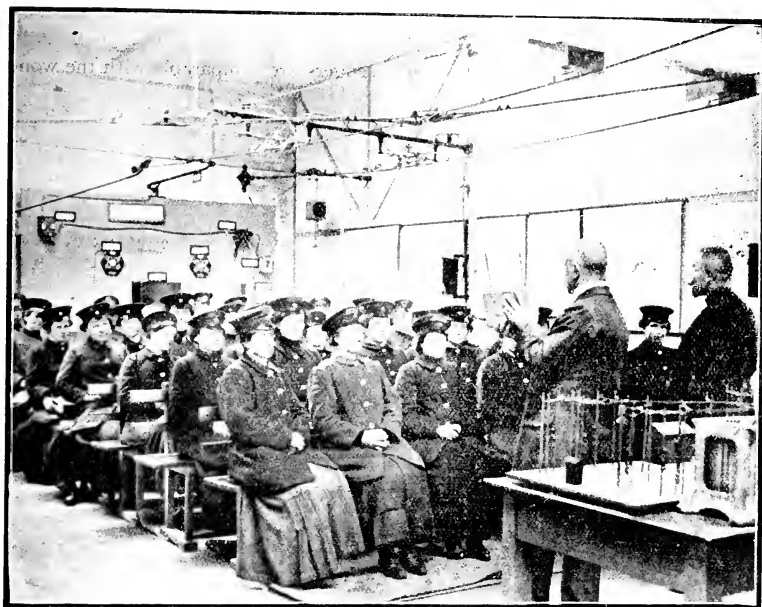
[Philadelphia.

AT ANY OTHER TIME THIS MIGHT ATTRACT ATTENTION.



Philadelphia Inquirer.

"A LITTLE SOUVENIR FOR POSTERITY."



A class of women being trained to take up the work of men on the Berlin electrical tramways. Overhead is a full-sized system of conduit wires, and models are on the table.

THE GREATEST GUN FACTORY ON EARTH.

Everyone now knows of Krupp's, the mighty works at Essen, which produce the terrible engines of war now devastating Europe, but few think of them as anything but automatic gun makers. Yet some of the finest efforts in the way of caring for the workers are to be found at the German war factory. Benevolent feudalism is there shown at its best. Robert Hunter visited Essen some time ago, to see what had been done by the firm to improve the living conditions of the men and their families, and tells the story of what he found in the *American Review of Reviews*:—

The patriotic Germans point with pride to Essen as a model industrial town, where its hosts of employees are well housed and circumstanced, and in addition enjoy many social privileges not enjoyed by the workers in the ordinary industrial community. And all through the benevolence and kindly foresight of the Krupp family.

Another of the aspects of Essen is that the Krupp's are said to have established a perfect system of industrial feudalism: that

for all practical purposes the people of Essen are body and soul the property of the Krupp's, just as if they were serfs back in the Middle Ages on the domain of some feudal baron.

True, their masters feed them well and house them well, but that, it is said by those who take this view, is no more than was done by the barons. Indeed, if the barons were to have efficient military service they had to recognise their responsibilities to their serfs.

On the other hand, it is said that in these days when the industrial barons take all they can get by way of service and repudiate their responsibilities, it is much to the credit of the Krupp's that they keep their workpeople in a comfortable condition.

Having thus set forth what people say about Krupp's, Mr. Hunter adds:—

It is not my concern to decide whether the Krupp's were animated only by philanthropic motives in establishing their model community, with its sanitary houses, wholesome surroundings, care for the sick and injured, pensions and asylum for the aged; or whether it was simply with shrewd business acumen, or with deliberate malpense, they evolved this system of "benevolent feudalism."

He points out that it is absolutely necessary to make certain that the regular working of what may be called the German arsenal must not be subject to the disputes, strikes and stoppages incidental to industry, for that would place the very existence of Germany in jeopardy in case of war. The conditions of employment must be better than anywhere else, the wages must permit of a higher standard of living, there must be security of life—in short, the conditions must be such that it pays a disgruntled man better to stay right on. The first surprise Mr. Hunter got when he approached the gigantic steel mills was to find the town of Essen bright and lovely. Here was no cloudy, overcast, smoky and murky atmosphere such as he had sampled in Pittsburgh and Sheffield, and which is indeed common to most industrial districts. It was obvious, from the size of the bright and cheerful houses, that well-to-do people had not forsaken the town as being unhealthy and undesirable. There were no hovels, no wretched alleys, no vile tenements and no hideous courts. Knowing, as I do, the neighbourhood which houses the huge army of workmen near the mighty Elswick Works, the great British ship-building yards and gun factory in Newcastle, I do not wonder at Mr. Hunter being amazed at the contrast. He watched 30,000 men enter the factory gates—at 5.30 in the morning—and noticed that "most of the men looked strong and well; they are undoubtedly a finer set of workmen than could be seen at any American factory."

When Alfred Krupp acquired sole control of the little steel works in 1848, only seventy men were employed. Under his guidance, however, the factory rapidly increased in size, and, with the advent of numerous workmen and their wives, there was soon a house famine. Overcrowding naturally resulted in vice and disease, but it was not until a dreadful epidemic of cholera carried off hundreds of workmen that the housing question was seriously taken in hand. Alfred Krupp then began to build homes for his workmen.

In putting up these houses Krupp's aim was to furnish for the poorest of his work-

men and their families decent homes at the same rents as they had been paying for their former small, dark, and ill-ventilated lodgings. Of necessity they had to be built rather compactly, and near enough to the factory to enable the workmen to go home for the mid-day meal.

The new houses were immediately occupied, and the death rate and general health of the workmen showed considerable improvement. The old tenements and crowded quarters had naturally encouraged drunkenness and vice, and Alfred Krupp was wise enough to see that the consequent loss of strength and vitality among the workmen meant a considerable financial loss to his firm.

The first colony fulfilled the temporary need, and no other building was done until 1871, when several new branches of the factory were opened. By this time there was an enormous demand for lodgings. With characteristic energy Alfred Krupp again devoted himself to the problem, and in quick succession arose four colonies. One, known as the Barracks, was constructed in double-quick time in order to shelter the new workmen arriving daily.

The Barracks still exist, and although they are of light and airy construction they are in comparison with the other colonies almost a slum. The poorest workmen live there, and the dilapidation of the houses presents a very disagreeable impression.

The West End Colony immediately adjoins the factory, and consists of large tenements. They are extremely simple, and according to our modern standard exceptionally ugly, but they were in their day a great sanitary improvement on the ordinary dwelling houses in Essen. Kronenburg, another large colony built in the seventies, covers over fifty acres of land, and consists of 226 large four-storied brick tenements. Each house has ample space and a garden plot surrounding it. The streets are lined with fine lindens, and there is a beautiful park with a large open space adjoining for games and sports.

At one side of the busy market-place stands a large building containing a restaurant, library, and reading-room. There are two halls, one for the reunions of various societies, and a larger one, seating about 1500 persons, surrounded by galleries, utilised for gymnastics and theatrical performances.

But the most attractive colonies are situated farther from the works. Baumhof is quite charming, with its small houses, each with its own ground, and each with its space for pigs and poultry.

Friedrichshof is another well-laid-out colony, with plenty of playgrounds and gardens and breathing spaces. The apartments are admirably appointed; every tenement has its balcony, has its creepers and potted plants; and the altogether appearance is

very pleasing. Near the centre is a large and well-equipped library, and a bathing establishment with tubs and shower baths.

Alfredshof is perhaps the most picturesque colony. Its streets, squares, and gardens are charmingly planned, and the houses are very attractive indeed. Fine gables and pretty windows adorn even the smallest cottages, which are all constructed of ornamental brick, with woodwork of a dark character. Each house has a verandah, and no two seem to be alike. These latter colonies are certainly an improvement upon the older ones, and are a credit to the firm.

For the poorest class of single men there are lodging houses of a cheap character, known as "The Ménage." They have accommodation for eight hundred men. Some of the better-paid men are housed in what is called the Bachelors' Quarter, where they are provided with an extremely comfortable club life.

But it is in their provision for the disabled and aged workmen that Krupp's have excelled themselves. Altenhof is an exquisitely designed little community of detached cottages on a particularly attractive site. It overlooks the sylvan valley of the Ruhr, and nestles up to a little wood of beech trees quite at the edge of the town. It is intended that all the workmen who have grown old in the service of the firm shall be cared for in this colony. The old couples live together, but there are special homes for the widows and widowers, both of which are comfortable buildings. At present this colony contains a hundred and twenty-five houses.

A rough idea of this great housing scheme will be gained when I say that over 30,000 persons are now housed in the various Krupp colonies.

Having housed their people comfortably, Krupp's next turned their attention to feeding and clothing them, and supplying them with furniture and household requisites.

Thus enormous supply stores have been developed. At first the supplies were sold at cost price, and naturally difficulties soon arose with the local shopkeepers. Now goods are sold at current prices to everyone, whether employed by the firm or not. But, in order that the employees should not be robbed of their benefits a system of rebate was devised, and now every year in December the bonuses are returned to the work-people in cash.

In connection with these great stores slaughter houses and a large bakery have been established, and these establishments are models of their kind. The baking, for instance, is almost entirely done by machinery. Indeed, only once during the process does anyone touch the material.

By way of amusement and recreation for its employees the firm has established two casinos, with dining-rooms, billiard-rooms, tennis courts and cafés. There is a large concert hall, an excellent library, a well-equipped gymnasium, as well as several bathing establishments.

In addition to the ordinary schools there is an industrial and household school where more than 2000 girls, all daughters of the workmen, are taught household duties, plain and fancy sewing, dressmaking, embroidery, etc. In the workshops of the evening schools a great number of the boys practically serve their apprenticeship. A special committee is attached to the educational department, which supervises the recreation, the sporting, and the holiday arrangements.

Of the many other things Mr. Hunter saw we can make but brief mention. Naturally in such a dangerous business as that of Krupp's provision for the quick and adequate care of injured and disabled must be made. The hospital and convalescent homes are very efficient, set in well-kept gardens.

Fortunately for the workmen, and perhaps for the employers, there is in Germany compulsory insurance of all working people. The scheme provides that in any case the employee who is ill or injured must be cared for out of the insurance funds. The Krupp firm, however, has improved upon the national system, and has provided a system of its own which enables it to give considerable further assistance to its employees. They pay a workman whose annual wages are 1200 marks, and who has served thirty years, 600 marks per year as an old-age pension. The Government pension is at present not more than 150 marks—this the workman gets in addition to his Krupp pension.

The labourer's most substantial complaint against the present industrial system is that it gives him not the least security. It takes his labour when it wants it, and refuses it when it does not want it. For the rest he can go hang. His existence is in very deed from hand to mouth, and he is never more than a month or so from starvation.

The workmen at Krupp's are fully provided for from birth to old age. They are freed from the harassing anxieties of the ordinary labourer, so long as they are faithful servants of the Krupp's. What more could they desire?

It is not to be expected, however, that there is no fly in the amber, and many have detected a very big one, for the men who are employed by Krupp's have to sacrifice their political liberty, and the one thing that is absolutely anathema at the works is trade unionism.

The men are not allowed to join a trade union. Instant dismissal is the lot of anyone found doing so. No one connected with the firm can openly belong to the Social Democratic Party. Anyone found agitating for the Socialists is immediately forced to quit. The firm simply will not have anything or anybody about the place savouring of labour organisation or socialism.

Notwithstanding the philanthropy of the Krupp's, and the comparative comfort of their existence, the workmen do consider themselves in helpless bondage to their employers. And unquestionably Krupp's have an extraordinary power over their vast army of employees because of their welfare institutions. Strikes are rendered hopeless by the men's fear of losing the benefits they have, in good houses, cheap food, and old-age pensions.

Mr. Hunter describes the casting of a big gun as the most dramatic and terrifying sight he had ever witnessed.

The director gave a sign that the molten steel was ready to be removed from the furnaces and poured into the mould; and in an instant the scorching heat of white flames struck my face from both sides, although I was standing perhaps fifty yards from the furnaces. Swarms of men rushed as it seemed right into the mouths of these fires, and snatched from them blazing cauldrons of metal. Gripping tongs, they dashed two by two toward the mouth of the mould, and by a dextrous twist of the hand the glaring white steel was poured into the cavity. Another twist of the hand, and the crucible was thrown on one side. These groups of men had hardly time to get clear before other groups were upon their heels with another lot of shining metal.

The order was doubtless marvellous, but to me it seemed all confusion and pandemonium; the curiously muffled workmen seemed to be hopping frantically about amidst a thousand blazing fires. The slightest slip, the loosening of a grip, the

misplacing of a foot, might cause a score of men to be wiped out.

There are some 70,000 employees altogether. Ordinarily Krupp's manufacture railway equipment, motor cars and other steel products for the purposes of peace as well as guns. Now, however, the entire establishment is being devoted exclusively to the making of guns and war munitions; night and day shifts are working under tremendous pressure, and all the dread implements in the arsenal of war stream forth in steady shipments.

Five separate groups of works are comprised in the Krupp organisation. The first of these is the Essen steel works—with proving grounds at Meppen, Tanger-Hütte and Essen—consisting of some sixty departments and covering an area of about 500 acres. Here are housed 7200 machine tools, 17 roll trains, 187 hammers, 81 hydraulic presses, 307 steam boilers, 560 steam engines, over 2200 electric motors, and 900 cranes. The total coal consumed in this entire establishment last year alone was 3,000,000 tons. In this group is included also the Milhofener-Hütte, with its four blast-furnaces; the Hermann-Hütte, with three blast-furnaces, and the Sayner-Hütte, with coal and iron mines.

The second group consists of the Friedrich-Alfred Iron Works at Rheinhausen, with six blast-furnaces, 15 blowing engines, and Siemens-Martin steel works.

The third group is the Annen steel works, producing principally steel castings up to twenty-five tons.

The fourth group is the Gruson Machine Works at Magdenburg-Backau, made up of more than fifty different shops. These cover an area of 75 acres, and house 1850 machine tools and nearly 500 cranes.

The fifth group is the naval section of the Krupp works, the Germania shipyards at Kiel. These works cover 60 acres, containing eight building slips (four of them roofed), the two largest of which can accommodate vessels up to 725 feet long and 130 feet wide. Two acres are devoted to forge shops. The main bay of the fitting shop is 475 x 78 feet, and the boiler shop is 400 x 212 feet.

WHAT HOLLAND SHOULD DO ACCORDING TO H. G. WELLS.

A recent issue of *La Revue* (Paris) contains a most significant article from the pen of H. G. Wells, on Holland's future, what course it would be the part of wisdom for her to pursue in the

present conflict, and other vitally interesting points. The article is prefaced by an editorial note to the effect that the Dutch papers, even those the most friendly to the Germans, now

maintain that Germany's annexation of Belgium would strike a death-blow at Holland.

What changes, Mr. Wells asks, may be wrought by the war in Holland's status? What is likely to be her fate in the near future?

It is an indisputable fact, says he, that at the present moment Holland holds the key to the European situation.

At the outset of the war there was reason to fear that Holland's neutrality might be violated, but the danger of a German attack is daily diminishing. Holland's position to-day is one of immense material consequence to Germany and of sincere moral integrity as regards the Allies. From the outbreak of hostilities and during a momentous crisis she has borne herself patiently and loyally; has endured inevitable provocations honestly and with dignity. Should she be subjected now to a German outrage and hurl her fine army of over 400,000 men upon Aix-la-Chapelle she would hold Germany in check by a swift defeat. And that is the important point in Holland's present position.

She holds a keen-edged sword suspended over Germany! Did it ever occur to her to join the German side? She would, no doubt, have effectively reinforced Germany's western front, but her action would not have been a decisive factor in the war. Should she, on the contrary, join the Allies, it would have a quite different significance. Let us frankly admit it—she would strike a decisive blow in the conflict. Cutting off the main routes of the German army in Flanders, she would surround, would help to capture, the greater part of the German western army, and would not only open the way to an attack on the Rhine, but, more important still, would divert its defensive forces. In fact, she would very rapidly give a finishing stroke to the German Empire. This is not divulging a strategic secret; one need but look at the map to confirm its truth.

Each day diminishes Germany's chances of offensive action, but each day, likewise, the destruction of Belgium goes on; the misery of its inhabitants, whom Holland could succour and deliver, grows apace. Why does she hesitate to join the Allies? Is she satisfied as she is, because her liberty remains intact with the Allies, practically, fighting to insure it to her?

Has the fear of Germanisation, which has harassed her for over forty years, vanished, then, into thin air? Or does she fear that the "good," vindictive Germans may make a last, supreme effort in devastating her?

Let us not try to blink the fact: Unless Holland intervenes the war will last a long time. It is essential for the whole world that it should cease!

It is a terrible burden for Holland herself to keep her army mobilised, even without fighting; her commerce is stagnant; she is encumbered with all manner of refugees; does not self-interest counsel her to adopt a course which will hasten the end of this state of things?

Mr. Wells' impression of the Dutch—and the English, he maintains, understand the Dutch character well—is that they are not very easily daunted. The fear of German retaliation would have no great weight with them; what would rather incite them to action would be a feeling of compassion for the little, heroic Belgian nation and the desire to teach the impudent Germans a wholesome lesson. In joining the Allies Holland would do more than put an end to a grievous conflict; she would bravely defend right and justice, and would emerge considerably enlarged from the European convulsion.

It would be absurd to suppose that Germany should have perpetrated so many infamies and outrages in Belgium and the beautiful provinces of France without her having to pay an abundant and bitter penalty for her crimes. Besides an immense indemnity, France and Belgium must push their frontiers far beyond their present ones. The integrity of Liege will be guaranteed by the annexation of the German district extending from Aix-la-Chapelle to Cologne. France will extend to the Rhine.

Do not let us talk any longer of buffer States, since Germany cannot respect them.

The case standing thus, Holland may look forward to having as her neighbour a greater and stronger Belgium, closely allied to France and England. Moreover, would Great Britain tolerate Germany's possession of East Friesland, which is a constant menace to her on the north of Holland? She will use her best efforts to secure a lasting peace in the future, but, justly, to insure it, Germany should be driven beyond the North Sea; since England does not covet East Friesland, Holland could, to her own advantage, incorporate this detached province.

And now let us imagine the impossible: The Allies were unable to annihilate German militarism. What would be Holland's fate twenty years after? Belgium and France intimately united by common trials, with a common language and literature, developed, regenerated, grown too powerful to tempt Germany to a new aggression, the latter will turn all its hatred against England alone, and profiting by the experience of 1914, she will, without scruple, violate isolated Holland in order to make her way to the mouth of the Rhine, thus unhesitatingly demonstrating her vindictive rancour at Holland's lukewarmness towards Teuton brotherhood.

In view of all these considerations, Holland ought ardently to desire the end of German supremacy and definitely join the great alliance of the Western powers.

England is disposed to protect by the surveillance of its navy the integrity of the Dutch colonial possessions; the mutual protection of the four united Western States, England, France, Belgium, and Holland would be the best guarantee of the security

of them all. Only thus can Holland emerge a stronger State!

Truly, this course is alluring. Hundreds of Dutch citizens are at this moment studying the map and thinking of all these things. Granting that Holland will remain intact, as a reward for her neutrality, what will happen to her in the future? She will remain isolated, with little hope and no friends, exposed to being girdled about by the good Teuton brotherhood, who will see to it that the German language shall gradually replace the Dutch, will without scruple Germanise her colonies and subordinate her commerce to that of Hamburg, Altona, or Antwerp!

No! no! never will a sound nation consent to such a promiscuity with Germany!

Even without serious violations of her neutrality Holland will decide to push her troops on towards Belgium. With slight effort she could relieve and deliver her martyred neighbour; by the mere movement of her army she would compel Germany to evacuate her sister nation. At present the power of directing the course of European events lies in her hands!

Fancy anyone actually believing that brave little Holland really could do anything, or that with her 400,000 men she "holds the key to the European situation"!

BRAVO! BOY SCOUTS!

The practical value to England of the Boy Scouts in this period of national peril is seriously discussed in *The Hibbert Journal* by Captain Cecil Price. A time of national emergency, says this writer, has found the Boy Scouts organisation ready on the instant to contribute its quota to the public weal. As soon as the war cloud threatened to burst over England, word was sent from the Chief Scout, Sir Robert Baden-Powell, to every Scout headquarters in the United Kingdom that all Scouts possible would be needed in the crisis. Within the space of a week all of the 22,000 Scouts in the London area were completely mobilised, as well as all the available Scouts in the country, more especially along the coast. The duties that were at once allotted to these lads were as follows:—

Handing out notices to inhabitants, and other duties connected with billeting, commandeering, warning, etc.

Carrying out communications by means of despatch riders, signallers, wireless, etc.

Guarding and patrolling bridges, culverts, telegraph lines, etc., against damage by individual spies.

Collecting information as to supplies, transport, etc., available.

Carrying out organised relief measures among inhabitants.

Helping families of men employed in defence duties, or sick or wounded.

Establishing first-aid, dressing, or nursing stations, refuges, dispensaries, soup kitchens, etc., in their club-rooms.

Acting as guides, orderlies, etc.

Forwarding despatches dropped by aircraft.

Sea scouts watching estuaries and ports, guiding vessels in unbuoyed channels, or showing lights to friendly vessels, etc., and assisting coastguards.

This by no means exhausts the list.

To show how the Boy Scouts are suited to much of the work that has been entrusted to them, Captain Price gives a brief outline of the kind of training which a Scout has to undergo before he is permitted to wear the efficiency badge. For instance, a boy chosen to assist in a first-aid capacity must have passed a test within ten per cent. error. He knows the fireman's lift, how to drag an insensible man with ropes; how to improvise a stretcher; the position of main arteries; how to stop bleeding from vein or artery, internal or external, and how to improvise splints and to diagnose and bind fractured limbs.

The intimate knowledge of the local districts required of Scouts to receive the "Pathfinder" badge should prove extremely useful to troops drafted into different parts of the country and on the coast.

It is computed that fully 20,000 Boy Scouts throughout the kingdom have been requisitioned for special duties. Some, for instance, were desired to relieve the telegraph department, and ten were designated for patrol work in an aircraft factory at night time. Boy Scouts provided with bicycles act as messengers for the staff of workers at the War Office. The uniform of the Boy Scouts is recognised by the British Government as the uniform of a public-service, non-military body. The Scouts remain, however, what they have always been, a strictly non-military body, without arms or regulation drill.

Scouts are even employed to guard the concentration camps where alien enemies are interned.

Captain Price relates the story of the French Boy Scout who was shot by Germans because he refused to betray a party of his countrymen who were ambushed in a wood:—

"... He went with firm step to a telegraph post, and stood up against it with the green vineyard at his back, and received the volley of the firing party with a proud smile on his face."

Here was bravery indeed. It is to be hoped that the name and locality of this youthful French hero may be rescued from oblivion, that his gallant deed may be remembered by Boy Scouts wherever that in-

stitution extends, as an example of the highest fidelity to the spirit of Scout Law.

A senior Scout of Belgium, Georges Laysen, of Liège, a lad of eighteen, was decorated by King Albert and given a commission.

In Italy the Boy Scouts have been used for many purposes; among others they have been initiated into the technicalities of driving trams and acting as conductors. In Turkey, where, by the way, the Boy Scout movement also caught on, the boys have been rendering notable service in Constantinople and other cities.

RUSSIA, POLAND AND THE DARDANELLES.

As Italy is now making common cause with the powers of the Triple Entente and is destined to have an important voice in the eventual adjustment of the map of Europe in case the fortunes of war favour this side, an Italian opinion as to the claims and expectations of Russia, in respect to Austrian territory especially, possesses considerable interest. More particularly when the opinion comes from one who has had such excellent opportunities for forming it as Signor Melegari, who was the Italian Ambassador to St. Petersburg from 1905 to 1913. Signor Melegari contributes an article on the subject to *Nuova Antologia* (Rome).

That Russian demands, in case of victory, will not only concern her own national requirements, but also those of Serbia and Montenegro is, of course, well known, and also that Russia's supreme aim is, as it has ever been, the possession of Constantinople and the control of the Dardanelles.

In regard to Austrian territory, however, apart from the requirement that Serbia should secure that part inhabited by those of Serbian speech, there is a general belief that Russia would annex Eastern Galicia, combining this province with her own Polish possessions, and perhaps with Prussian Poland, into a new, more or less autonomous Poland under Russian control. As to this, however, Signor Melegari is not very confident; indeed, he inclines to the opinion

that Russian mistrust might prevent the carrying out of the plan. Weighing the arguments for and against this course, he says:—

In favour of a partial or complete annexation of Eastern Galicia many weighty motives of a historical order might be adduced. In the first place, this would restore to Russia a land which in past times formed an integral part of the domains of the Princes of Kieff, who combined to form a state that preserved its independence under Russian princes of the house of Rurik until the Polish conquest; secondly, there dwell in this territory four million Russians (Ruthenians), who during five centuries have given ample proofs of national steadfastness, and, thirdly, the present open frontier of Podolia and Volinia would be replaced by that formed by the Dniester and the San, or even better, by the great natural barrier of the Carpathians.

On the other hand, considerations of a more general character, even from an exclusively Russian viewpoint, might be brought forward against the annexation. The loss of the vast Galician domains, which in area and population represent but little less than one-quarter of the entire complex of Austrian territory, to say nothing of the further amputations that would be demanded in favour of Serbia and other countries, would perhaps result in a complete transformation of the Austro-Hungarian Empire as at present constituted, leaving as sole survivors the more vigorous nationalities, such as the Magyars and the Germans, and this would imply a greater peril for Russia than the present complicated structure of the duplex monarchy. The subtraction of from six to eight million Galicians would reduce the Slavonic element to a feeble minority, giving a crushing superiority to the Hungarians and Germans. Austro-Hungary would then be nothing more than a satellite of Germany, a blind instrument in her hands for any future enterprises.



RUSSIA'S GOAL.

On the shores of the Golden Horn.

The dislike of Germany and the Germans felt by many Russians has its roots rather in the successful utilisation of the vast resources of the Russian Empire by Germans in Russia for their own benefit than in any racial antipathy. The fact that the Germans have been able to establish a ruinous competition in many branches of Russian industry and commerce has made them unpopular with their unsuccessful competitors. This, however, chiefly concerns the business world of Russia and should not be taken as indicative of Russian opinion as a whole.

In conclusion, the writer emphasises in the strongest possible way the unshakable determination of Russia to secure the outlet to the Mediterranean that has ever been the dream of her rulers and statesmen. His long and in-

timiate acquaintance with Russian politics makes these closing words of his paper especially worthy of consideration, and perhaps we may see in them an indication of Italy's eventual attitude in the matter :—

As to the question of the Dardanelles and of Constantinople, Russian public opinion has already assumed a firmly decisive tone, and is ready, when the occasion arises, to make itself heard with no uncertain voice. It will admit neither subterfuges nor palliatives; it will demand that the Gordian knot be sharply cut, and in Russia's favour. It might consent that Constantinople should remain Turkish, but it would never consent that any other power than Russia should acquire that city.

Russia feels that her sturdy shoulders are expected to sustain the major part of the burden of this war, and she is ready and willing to spare no effort to bring it to a successful conclusion, but she will never permit that she should be cheated out of the reward which is her due.

THE "DOGS OF WAR" IN MODERN DAYS.

It is reported in history that in 650 B.C., the Greeks of Ionia made use of dogs in their war against the Cimmerians to aid Ardys, the son of Gyges. Doubtless these were wild, wolf-like creatures of savage nature, which not only chased, but seized and tore their human quarry. But in this twentieth century, while dogs form a very important feature of military supplies, their services are chiefly devoted to the humaner side of warfare.

They are, in fact, employed in no less than five ways. Chief among these is that of Red Cross dogs, serving as aids to the ambulance men in finding wounded soldiers who may have crawled off into bushes, woods, ditches, or caves. But they are also employed as post dogs, as questing or search dogs, as sentinels or watch dogs, and finally as draft dogs, to draw mitrailleuses, as well as carts.

A recently arrived number of *La Nature* (Paris) discourses informingly upon these various offices of man's most familiar and intelligent friend among the lower animals. The Belgian dogs are peculiarly valuable in these respects, though German, French, and English breeds are also made use of. "For these applications," says the writer, "the French spirit, in Belgium, gave the initiative and primary idea, while Germany followed with methodical organisation." He continues thus:—

The Belgians have long been interested in dogs, both for sport and for practical purposes. Wherever one goes in Flanders one cannot fail to note the number of vehicles drawn by dogs. Dogs trained to search for the wounded were first exhibited at the dog shows at Ostend and Spa. Some years later there was founded a national society for the improvement of the shepherd dog, which found valuable support in the Institute of Animal Psychology, and in its turn sustained the idea of another group—the Société du Chien Sanitaire (Society of Red Cross Dogs). About the same time similar societies were founded in Germany and France. Their object was the training of the search dog to hunt for the wounded, who often escape the observation of the most attentive ambulance men, while the dog succeeds in unearthing them immediately by his keen scent (flair). Shortly afterward the same Belgian lieutenant who had founded the Société du Chien Sanitaire, Lieut. Van

de Putti, likewise recognised the aptitude of the draft dog for dragging mitrailleuses.

The leagues already existing for the breeding of draft dogs, profiting by their co-operation, he found the way thus prepared, so that from the beginning of the present war the Belgians have had on hand an army of dogs for drawing their mitrailleuses.

At this point the writer remarks that since it would be indiscreet to give precise information as to the provision in this respect made by his French compatriots, he will describe the German organisation, leaving us to infer that the French is conducted on similar lines of efficiency. He states that a society for shepherd-dogs has existed in Germany since 1880, having at present 4000 members, and publishing a list of 45,000 dogs, of which 4000 forming a military register are characterised by special aptitudes. These are divided as follows:—

1. Police dogs—P. H. (H. stands for Hund).
2. Red Cross or Sanitary Dogs for hunting out the wounded—S. H.
3. Searching or questing dogs—Z. H.
4. Post dogs—P. H.
5. Sentinel and watch dogs—W. & B. H.

These comprise two armies, one in active service, and one composed of reserves. Finally there is a training department attached to the Sanitäts Division.

The best Belgian breeds, perfected by years of inheritance and selection, are the Malinois, Gronendaël, and Tervueren. Besides these, the Germans use various breeds, including a shepherd dog originating in the valley of Munster, in Alsace, and in the valley of the Bile, etc., as well as the Airedale terrier, which is likewise much used by the English and Russians.

Even in times of peace the battalions of chasseurs employ post dogs and sentinel dogs, while other regiments have as many as ten dogs apiece. As an advance sentinel a well-trained dog easily hides in a furrow or behind a bush or hillock. Having acute ears he easily detects the slightest unusual sound. In such case he does not bark, but returns to the sharpshooters, apprising them they must be on their guard. He is thus a valuable aid in avoiding surprises by night.

He is also a useful companion for a spy. If the latter, for example, is signalling by a luminous kite, the dog runs to warn his master in case a patrol comes up suddenly,

whereupon the spy cuts the string and assumes an air of innocent unconcern. The search dog accompanies a patrol and beats the ground for an enemy in ambush, just as he would rouse a hare.

In post dogs, use is made of the remarkable faculty of recognition of individuals possessed by some dogs in order to deliver secret messages. The sanitary or Red Cross dogs are very intelligent in finding wounded men who might else be left to die. The chief physician holds the dog on a long

leash, which is slipped at an opportune moment. Thanks to a bell on the dog's neck, his itinerary can be followed, and when he makes a discovery he barks incessantly.

Finally, dogs are used to drag mitrailleuses and munitions. Without referring to what is now occurring in France, we may add that the French have employed a similar organisation in Morocco, where Gen. Lyavtey last year made use of thirty draft dogs in an expedition.

ITALY'S TROUBLES IN TRIPOLI, AND HER ASPIRATIONS IN EUROPE.

Writing before Italy's declaration of war against Austria, the political editor of *Rassegna Nazionale* (Rome), while deprecating the intemperate zeal of many who advocated Italy's interference in the great conflict, takes occasion to formulate very emphatically legitimate expectations of that country as to territorial expansion. Treating of this he says:—

Now that the question of Italy's neutrality has reached a critical stage, we must hope that the Government, before making its final decision will have taken every step to ensure the realisation of our national aspirations to the fullest possible extent. Whether by peaceful or by war-like means, there can be no doubt that the destiny of our unredemmed territory on the Adriatic must be definitely determined.

We trust, however, that other problems also will be solved in accordance with our special interests. Thus we trust that there will be reserved for us, in the Mediterranean, in the Aegean, and in Asia Minor, a share proportionate to the requirements of our position; we trust, moreover, that the significant campaign of a not unimportant section of the Russian press against our aspirations in the Adriatic and the Balkans, does not truly represent the ideas of the Russian Government. Above all, we trust that those upon whom rests the tremendous responsibility of guiding the destinies of our native land will know how to safeguard our country for the future, so as to prevent any eventual rearrangement of the map of Europe to our disadvantage, leaving us, to-morrow, isolated and unsupported in the midst of rival and distrustful nations.

The writer then turns to an especially unfortunate circumstance for Italy at the present critical period—namely, that her recent conquests in Tripoli are seriously menaced by a native uprising. The supreme necessity of concentrating all her available resources at home to overcome or resist Austria, renders this a very great peril and raises the ques-

tion whether in her effort to enlarge her territory at the expense of her powerful neighbour, Italy may not have risked the loss of territory already secured at great cost of blood and treasure. As the significance of this Tripolitan insurrection has been generally overlooked, the following trustworthy data are both interesting and important:—

As a rule, colonial conquests furnish for a number of years disagreeable surprises for the colonising power, as our neighbours across the Alps have experienced in Tunis, and especially in Algeria. This consideration does not, however, in the least lessen the bitter reflections aroused by what has recently happened in Tripoli, just as the region seemed to be finally pacified. The last conflict, at Sirta, has assumed a notable importance, both because of the treachery on a large scale of the irregular native auxiliaries, and because of the sad number of victims who died the death of heroes in the unequal combat.

The rebellion of a part of the native population, beginning in the interior and gradually spreading toward the coast, is of extreme gravity, and it is indeed to be deplored that the necessities of the international situation have not allowed us to take immediate and severe repressive measures, which would perhaps have checked this dangerous movement at the very outset. As, however, we did not wish to send troops from our national territory and were even obliged to retire our garrisons from the interior and to momentarily confine our effective occupation to the zone along the coast, it was inevitable that with populations accustomed to yield only to force, our retirement should seem a confession of weakness, and should, therefore, give greater encouragement to the insurgents.

We shall now be forced to traverse again the route that will make our sovereignty effective up to the boundaries of the colony. This must be done deliberately and firmly; above all, the central Government and the colonial administration must have a clear and definite plan, for it has too often happened in our brief colonial history, that only spasmodic efforts have been made, without any decided programme and without any



unity of action between the directing power in Rome and the local authorities. This is a very grave fault, one that has already proved very costly for other nations, and which might have exceedingly disastrous results.

An article by Signor A. Quintieri in *Rivista d'Italia* (Rome), written on the eve of Italy's momentous decision to range herself on the side of the Triple Entente powers, gives evidence of an exceptionally clear perception of the difficulties to be encountered, even in case of a successful issue of the war.

The writer recognises that the oppressive character of Austrian rule, in certain directions, has had at least one good effect in the regions inhabited by those of Italian blood, for this very oppression has kept alive their devotion to Italy, while under the generous French domination of the island of Corsica, ethnographically and geographically within the Italian sphere, and where the Italian language is still largely maintained, the inhabitants have become entirely French in sentiment. At the same time Signor Quintieri is not disposed to charge the Austrian Government with having done much economic injury to "Unredeemed Italy." Of this he says:—

The Italian regions subject to Austria do not enjoy any greater degree of prosperity than they did long ago under Venetian rule,

but bearing in mind the changes that have taken place all along the Adriatic, we cannot say that they are notably worse off. If the ethnic frontier has been gradually pushed back toward the sea, this change has not resulted from the political action of Austria, but is due to the more progressive character of the Italian population, which has abandoned to the less enterprising Slavs the rudimentary agricultural development of the interior, and has moved down toward the coast so as to carry on commerce and thus enjoy a greater degree of prosperity, in the same way and for the same reasons that the Greeks of Macedonia have given up the interior of that country to the Bulgarians.

If the commercial activity that built up Italy has declined, as is but too true, this is not because it has been cut off by the Austrian ports in the Adriatic. It has decreased for the same reason that has made the port of Venice two centuries ago supreme in this region, now scarcely able to resist the competition of Trieste, and Venetian commerce, that once monopolised the trade of the Levant, has now to depend upon the subsidies doled out by the Italian Government.

This commercial activity of Trieste, which competes so victoriously with our mercantile marine, has its roots in the Austrian hinterland. The trade which proceeds from the Hungarian plains finds an outlet in Trieste, directly dependent upon the economic policy by favourable customs and port regulations. This trade would not be transferred to us by the annexation of Trieste, for the activity of all the ports on the Dalmatian coast is directly dependent upon the economic policy of the State governing the sources of supply, and these sources would be provided with some other outlet provided for by political exigencies.

Turning to the territorial extension required by Italy, Signor Quintieri de-

fines this within somewhat narrower limits than those likely to be established by the Italian Government should it eventually find itself in a position to dictate terms to Austria—always subject, indeed, to a possible veto on the part of Russia. These minimum requirements are thus presented:—

We confine ourselves to what is incontestably our right, putting aside a century-old tradition which renders especially dear to us certain parts of the Dalmatian territory: but we demand a reasonable compensation in view of the size of our population, and also on account of the great and important centres of commerce and industry on our side of the Adriatic, while the Dalmatian coast only offers a few scattered towns and half-deserted islands, and, moreover, because of the fact that we are exposed toward the East so long as our domain has not reached its proper geographical frontiers. It is not easy to find an adequate compensation for these disadvantages, but

looking exclusively to the safety of the Adriatic, we can confine ourselves to asking for the Strait of Otranto and the adjacent territory requisite for its defence on the other side of the sea. We ask this of Austria, just as we would of any other State which might succeed to it in its Adriatic possessions.

The Strait of Otranto for us, in a more limited sphere, is what the Strait of Gibraltar is for the English: it will be the bulwark of our eastern ports, the supporting base of our squadrons in case of war. Serbia has nothing to fear from us. From the time that Italy became a nation she has never interfered with the aspirations of her neighbours, and that right of nationality we have proclaimed for ourselves we have respected for others.

The assurances we shall give to the Slavs are more significant than those which, according to official journals, have been offered to us from Petrograd, because they are confirmed by the conduct we have observed whenever we have had an opportunity to support the demands or give our vote in favour of oppressed peoples.

THE DRINK PROBLEM IN ENGLAND.

Writing on "The Drink Trade and State Purchase," in *The Contemporary Review*, the Right Hon. Sir Thomas P. Whittaker, M.P., for many years a worker in the temperance movement, discusses the dangerous question and the proposed solution of it candidly and with grasp and insight. First of all, Sir Thomas finds that the lesson to be learned from the present "pitiable and humiliating spectacle" is "that the problem of dealing with the great evil which is our national discredit, would be enormously simplified if we were to eliminate from it the widespread influence—political and social, national and local—which personal financial interest in the trade creates and exercises against every effort to secure substantial reform." Pointing out that prohibition, "the simplest and most effective remedy where it can be enacted and enforced," is not now feasible in England because Parliament has not given the people the power locally to veto the sale of drink, he says:—

Clearly it would be an enormous gain if the direct personal financial interest of the liquor trader were eliminated, and all pushing of the sale of drink and all inducements to the seller to evade the law were abolished. That can only be done by taking the trade out of the hands of those who now conduct it and placing it under the control of per-

sons whose only object would be to promote the public well-being, and who would have no interest in pushing the sale or conniving at breaches of the law: that is to say, by placing it under disinterested management.

Taking up the practical aspects of the Lloyd George proposal, which as yet has failed of approval, the writer continues:—

Of course, everything would turn upon the terms on which the transaction could be carried through. It would be useless to put before Parliament and the country anything that appeared to be extortionate or unreasonable. . . . The committee to which the problem for England and Wales was referred was a very representative one, and it made a unanimous report, the outstanding points of which have been made known, and were:—

1. That the average prices for the three years ending June 30, 1914, should be taken as the value of those securities which were quoted on London or provincial stock exchanges; that where the securities were not quoted, or the undertakings were privately owned, the number of years' purchase of the average annual net profits at which the value should be fixed should be based upon the number of years' purchase of the annual net profits which the prices of quoted securities represent. . . .

2. That the purchase price should be paid in 4 per cent. Government stock at par, redeemable at par at the option of the Government any time after seven years.

When considering the financial aspects of such a transaction as this there are many important matters to be borne in mind. Not the least of them is the revenue now derived

from licence duties and the taxes on beer, spirits, wine, etc. A payment corresponding to what these would have amounted to, according to the quantity of drink sold, if the trade had remained in private hands, would, of course, have to be made to the revenue out of the receipts from sales.

The price to be paid for the whole of the liquor trade to be acquired in England and Wales on the basis suggested would probably have been something between £250,000,000 and £300,000,000. The average annual net profits made by the trade in those companies which have a stock exchange quotation for their securities are about 7 per cent. on the capital value represented by these quotations. It may therefore be assumed that the purchase of the whole of the trade, on the average, would have been on a 7 per cent. basis. As the payment would have been made in 4 per cent. Government stock, there would have been a margin of 3 per cent. to work upon. This would have amounted to something like £7,500,000 to £9,000,000 a year, according to the capital value as ascertained.

It will be said that Government management will never be so efficient and profitable as private enterprise. That is true; and if the object were to do as much business as possible the objection would be a sound one, but as that is not the case the objection loses much of its force, although it does represent a set-off which must not be overlooked.

Some of the advantages to be gained are summarised as follows:—

1. The direct personal financial interest of individuals deriving an income from the trade would be enormously reduced and largely changed.
2. The local and national, political and social influence, which is now so great a barrier to effective legislation and to the efficient administration of the laws which have been enacted, would practically disappear.
3. The number of licensed premises would be enormously reduced.
4. Grocers' licences would probably speedily disappear.
5. Shortening the hours of sale, closing on Sundays, earlier closing on Saturday nights, the abolition of back doors and side entrances, the stopping of credit and of hawking drink in casks and bottles, and many other reforms would be made practicable and easy.
6. Inducements to attempt unduly to influence and corrupt the police and pack our benches of magistrates would cease to exist.
7. There would be an end of such contentious questions as compensation and a time limit.
8. The way would not only be clear for giving the people in their respective localities a wide power of local option, including local veto, but the ability to use the power would be largely increased because the opposition to it would be much reduced and be far less active and vigorous.

RANDOM READINGS.

Naturally the more serious magazines have a great deal to say about the war, and some splendid articles are appearing in their pages. In *The Fortnightly* Mr. Archibald Hurd characterises the formation of the new British armies as "the miracle of the war." He severely censures the military administration for permitting the haphazard enlistment of workers who are needed to produce munitions and armaments. That is a point not sufficiently kept in view here. In *Collier's*, Mr. Gibbon gives what is probably the best account of Kitchener and his methods which has yet appeared. He also tells of Colonel Richardson, the hardly known secretary of Britain's War Minister, who has so many of the characteristics of his great chief.

In *The Contemporary*, a writer shows that the British reading public is becoming somewhat tired of the irresponsible war talk indulged in by novelists and other literary men. "Let our nove-

lists write novels and entertaining novels," he says, "which shall refresh the thoughts of the anxious or the weary and divert the sick in hospitals. That is their job, and we should keep them to it." A sentiment with which most people will agree after wading through some of the stuff well-known fiction writers have been turning out about subjects of which they appear to be woefully ignorant. It is rather interesting to find that there is a notable tendency amongst the lighter magazines to give their readers ordinary, every-day tales. At first every magazine of the fiction type published special articles on the war, even going so far as to send well-known writers to the front to describe the fighting for the benefit of their readers. The censor appears to have rather dampened their ardour in this respect, for, after the appearance of one or two articles, containing unexplained blanks, most of the reviews fell back to their old style, and now contain little

about the actual fighting. *Pearson's* now and again publishes critical articles by Hilaire Belloc, which are well worth reading.

In *The Contemporary*, Dr. Dillon gives a detailed account of the negotiations between Signor Giolitti and Prince Bülow. He maintains that Italy's strategic weakness on her land and sea frontiers is likely to be more than counterbalanced by her contribution to the military and naval forces of the Allies. Like many a less able critic, Dr. Dillon seems to have assumed that Italy went into the war to help the Allies, not to help herself. He is also grievously in error in his assumption that the incoming of Italy must inevitably be followed by that of Roumania.

Mr. L. J. Maxse, the fire-eating editor of *The National Review*, says:—"I always told you so," in extra big capitals this month, and presumably utterly confounds his critics, who, during the last decade, have decried his alarmist utterances as the ravings of a crank. He reprints extracts from *The National Review* on the subject of the German Peril, covering the fifteen years 1899-1914. There are no less than 354 pages of these gleanings, which are published under the appropriate title of "Germany on the Brain." Mr. Thomas Gibson Bowles, in *The Candid Quarterly Review*, sets forth a lot of horrible possibilities supposing the incredible happened, and Germany emerged victorious, not crushed, from the struggle. Well may the patriot's flesh creep as he reads the dread summary, which includes the invasion of England, the occupation of London and other like horrors. One wakes as from an evil dream, and takes comfort in the concluding sentence: "Not one of these suppositions is at present conceivable."

In the same review Mr. Bowles demanded recently that we should repudiate the Hague Conventions and the Declarations of London and Paris, which several instruments rendered our fleet powerless to effect its mission. Norman Angell in *The North American Review* gives us a timely warning that Britain's claim to restrain the trade of neutrals will inevitably be challenged after the war. "There will be an irre-

sistible movement in America, for the neutralisation of the high seas. There is in England not the faintest realisation of this. The English public are likely, in consequence, one day to be presented with demands which, because there has been no adequate discussion of the causes which underlie them, will seem unwarrantable and preposterous, and on no account to be granted. And yet America will not withdraw them. Such a situation is always dangerous."

G. Lowes Dickinson points out in *War and Peace*, that "punishing Germany" may mean inflicting injury on those unborn and continuing to future generations our present enemies. "The war," says Mr. Dickinson, "was not made by the sixty-five million men, women and children whom we call Germany, but by the Kaiser and his accomplices who are responsible." "To punish Germany for their actions is to punish the innocent for the guilty. It is like the old method, long ago abandoned as barbarous, of punishing a man's tribe or family for his fault. It is not really punishment, it is revenge." Discussing the position of Roumania in *The British Review*, R.T.C., unlike so many who have been crying out against her continued neutrality, does not jump to conclusions, takes nothing for granted. His remarks on the mental attitude of the neutral are well worth considering. "I have no doubt as to Roumania's ultimate participation in the struggle on the *entente* side. But she will come in on the strict resolve to create a national State, and not, like Italy, to secure an economic hegemony in a definite area. Her reasons for hesitation are, therefore, worthy of consideration. First, the victory of the *entente* is not yet seen to be inevitable. Should the *entente* lose, or should the result be drawn, it is obvious that the smaller States will be made the scapegoats."

In *La Revue de Paris*, E. de Martonne gives an interesting reason for the non-intervention of Roumania. He shows that her commerce is so interwoven with the central European powers, that, despite her real sympathy with the Allies, the Germanophile party could not at once be overthrown.

CATECHISM ON THE WAR—VI.

With but one or two exceptions, all the questions posed in the following Catechism have been asked by readers. In addition to these, I have received many queries about the armies in the field, numbers wounded, etc., which in most cases it would be unwise to answer, even if information were available. Still others have been dealt with before in these pages, either in previous Catechisms or else in the Progress or special articles. I should be glad to receive any questions from readers about matters on which they would like information.

Q.—Is the same powder used to propel shells as to explode them?

A.—No; propellant and explosive powders are quite different. For propulsive purposes black powder was at one time universally used, but has now been entirely discarded. Gelatinised mixtures of nitroglycerine and gun-cotton are now used exclusively. For filling shells picric acid and trinitrotoluene (T.N.T.) are used. For a detonator, fulminate of mercury is practically the only compound employed.

Q.—What is black powder made of?

A.—Nitre, sulphur and charcoal.

Q.—How is gun-cotton made?

A.—Glycerine, nitric and sulphuric acids and cotton.

Q.—What materials are required for explosive powders?

A.—Picric acid is made from a product of coal tar called phenol and nitric and sulphuric acids. T.N.T. is produced by similarly "nitrating" toluene, also a coal tar product. The disadvantage of picric acid is that it attacks most metals, hence a shell filled with it has to be protected in its interior with some material on which picric acid will not act. Trinitrotoluene on the other hand suffers from no such disadvantage. Picric acid, however, is mixed with nitrate of ammonium, charcoal, aluminium and trinitrotoluene. The resultant powder is called ammonal. It is largely used by the Austrians, and is very safe. It does not always explode though, for it is apt to become moist.

Q.—What is tolite?

A.—That is one of the many names for trinitrotoluene. T.N.T., Trotyl, Tritol, Trilite and Tritol are some other names of the same substance. It is very safe, for it requires a heavy detonation

to make it explode. It can be melted and poured into shells without any danger. Water does not harm it at all.

Q.—Why could not gun-cotton be used in the shells?

A.—It explodes far too easily. A shell charged with it would explode in the gun owing to the shock of the explosion of the propellant ammunition. Picric acid and T.N.T. do not explode easily, hence they are suitable for shells, but could not be used as propulsive ammunition.

Q.—Has Germany everything needed to manufacture the explosives she needs?

A.—She does not produce all the raw materials, but her chemists have been able to get what is needed from other substances. Sulphur, for instance, is hardly found in Germany, but in the Hartz and Silesia there are deposits of ores containing sulphur such as galena (sulphide of lead), blende (sulphide of zinc), and some others. She has no nitre (saltpetre), which comes from India, Peru and Chili. When distilled with sulphuric acid, it yields nitric acid, which is used in "nitrating" glycerine, cotton, phenol and toluene. For fifteen years, however, nitric acid has been won from the air in Sweden, and it is known that the Germans have extensive plants for the same purpose. Glycerine is a product of the soap works. There is, of course, plenty of coal tar, from which phenol and toluene are won. Not only have the Germans their own coal mines, they have the Belgian and French ones also. The only thing they appear to lack is cotton.

Q.—Is there no substitute for that?

A.—Cotton, of course, consists of cellulose, the chief constituent of wood, but cotton fibre appears to be the only form

of cellulose adapted for making gun-cotton. There is always the possibility that under the stress of urgent need the German chemists have adapted a substitute for cotton, as they have for so many other things, but it is unlikely.

Q.—How much cotton would be needed to make the necessary ammunition?

A. We must not forget that it is needed for propulsive ammunition only, not for filling shells. To make one ton of gun-cotton roughly half a ton of cotton fibre is needed. A German Mauser cartridge contains 48.4 grains of gun-cotton, to produce which would require something over 25 grains of cotton. Assuming that there are 3,000,000 men in the field, and that each fires ten rounds a day, then we have an expenditure of 31 tons of cotton a day, of 18,600 tons a year, for rifles alone. If we assume that the expenditure on machine guns is about the same we get 36,000 tons a year. The average charge of field guns is, say, 50 lbs. Supposing the Germans are using 5000 guns, and that each fires ten shots a day, that makes 1000 tons of gun-cotton, for which about 550 tons of cotton would be required, or, say, 200,000 tons a year. That is probably an over-estimate, and, in any case, such calculations are of little value.

Q.—What cotton has Germany got?

A.—It is assumed that Germany used some 100,000 tons of cotton annually for making 180,000 tons of gun-cotton. If she has stored this for the last five years, she must have had at least 900,000 tons of gun-cotton available when the war started. During 1913 Germany and Austria imported in the ordinary way 360,000 tons of cotton. Undoubtedly a good deal of this had not been transformed into manufactured articles, and would be available. During 1914 it is assumed that some 12,000 tons reached Germany via Sweden, and that she also got supplies via Holland and Italy, especially the latter. It would appear, therefore, that there is no immediate shortage of cotton, but if the war continues for another year or more, there will be.

Q.—Why does England not make cotton contraband?

A.—Presumably the home authorities

consider the precautions taken meet the case, and naturally they do not want to cause ill-feeling with neutrals. The Declaration of London expressly states that cotton must never be declared contraband, but that particular Declaration is not binding on anyone at present. Many people consider that Great Britain has made a very serious mistake in not commandeering and purchasing all the cotton shipped to Europe. By so doing she would have made absolutely certain that Germany got no supplies at all. Had she adopted this policy last year it is estimated that it would have cost £20,000,000 to buy up the cotton produced in excess of what British manufacturers themselves needed.

Q.—Could anything else but powder be used for firing guns?

A.—It is said that the Germans have applied the principle of exploding oil in hot-air used in the Diesse engine to their biggest guns. Details are lacking, but, presumably, the method would be to inject oil into a hot-air chamber behind the shell, the instantaneous explosion being sufficient to hurl the projectile for miles. If there be any truth in the rumour, an invention of that nature would obviously be of immense value to the enemy, assuming they are really short of cotton.

Q.—Did turpentine, about which we heard so much early in the war, generate poisonous gases?

A.—If we are to believe the statements which appeared in the papers and the cables sent from London and Paris, turpentine, the invention of the scientist Turpin, was used during the early days of the war. According to these reports, when it exploded reddish fumes were given off, which painlessly killed all in the neighbourhood.

Q.—If the French used a poisonous explosive of this nature first, why has there been such an outcry against the Germans for using poisonous gases?

A.—Presumably turpentine did not really kill men, as the reports said. Writing about this explosive when the accounts about its deadliness first came through, last September, Mr. Stead said:—

"It is gruesome to read of the ghastly work of the French shells described by

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a member of the American Red Cross Society. The explosive used evidently gives off a poisonous gas which overcomes all men in the immediate vicinity and leaves them dead, covered with a red powder. In London papers just to hand, M. Turpin, the inventor (of melinite and lyddite fame), declares that his invention is of a terrifying character, which will modify all present military tactics, and render all defensive measures illusory. M. Turpin states further that the French War Minister had decided to use his invention. The dum-dum and the explosive bullet have been prohibited by international law, foes are no longer permitted to poison wells and streams, but apparently these shells are not under the ban of the nations. To use turpinitite, however, is obviously to invite retaliation by the Germans. Their chemists are certain to evolve something horrible, and when the Allies begin to experience its effects, they will not be able to accuse the Germans of beginning this sort of warfare. Let us hope the turpinitite story is greatly exaggerated or untrue."

Most other comments at the time showed that the writers rather rejoiced that the French had found so deadly an offensive weapon.

Q.—Is it true that the British used lyddite shells which gave off a poisonous gas during the Boer War?

A.—They used lyddite, but the yellow fumes it gave off were not poisonous, although again in that case the cables telling of the surrounding and shelling of Cronje and his force near Kimberley certainly conveyed the impression—an entirely erroneous one as it turned out—that many of the Boers were suffocated where they lay.

Q.—Is the famous French 75 the greatest piece of artillery the war has produced?

A.—Amongst quick-firing guns it is pre-eminent. It has this immense advantage, that it does not require to be re-aimed after each discharge. The recoil is entirely taken up by the shock-absorbers and the gun points at exactly the same mark all the time.

Q.—Is the 75 a light gun?

A.—The following comparison be-

tween the 75 and its German rival is interesting:—

	French 75.	German 77.
Length	8 feet.	7½ feet.
Maximum range	3½ miles.	3 miles.
Shots per minute	25	9
Weight of shrapnel	15 lbs.	14 lbs.
Weight of explosive shell	11 lbs.	11 lbs.
Initial velocity (per sec.)	1720 ft.	1510 ft.
Bullets in shrapnel	300	300
Weight of cannon	2250 lbs.	1950 lbs.
Gunnery with each piece	7	8
Guns in battery ...	4	6
Batteries per army corps	30	24
Total number of cannon	2520	3600

"It is not a cannon of war that you French possess," said a German officer captured early in the campaign, "it is a weapon of the slaughterhouse."

Q.—What is the largest field gun in use?

A.—The German 11.2 in. howitzer has been converted into a field gun. It is the largest in use, and is said to have been used in bombarding Dunkirk, although a naval gun was probably used. According to reports in neutral papers the Germans have now made howitzers as large as 16.8 inches. The one which pulverised the Namur and Antwerp forts and amazed the world was 15.6 inches.

Q.—Is the 16.8-inch howitzer the largest made?

A.—It is said that a still more gigantic monster has been evolved by the Austrian Skroda works. It has the almost incredible calibre of 52 centimetres (20.5 inches). The shell is said to weigh nearly two tons. According to German accounts it was this terrific weapon which reduced Przemyśl in two days, compelling the Russians to evacuate the fortress despite the fact that they had made every arrangement to hold it at all costs.

Q.—Was the evacuation carried out under orders from Grand Duke Nicholas?

A.—The story runs that it was not, and that at a war council immediately afterwards, to which the general who had been left in charge was summoned, the Grand Duke, whose temper is admittedly short, denounced him furiously, and ended by striking him across

the face with his cane. Pulling out his revolver, the general is said to have shot the Grand Duke in the stomach, and then blown his own brains out. The Grand Duke was seriously, but not mortally wounded. This yarn, however, is about on a par with those which were circulated early in the war, telling of German generals who, reprimanded by the Kaiser, promptly took their own lives.

Q.—Why is the proportion of killed to wounded so high in the British casualty lists?

A.—That is due to the fact that most of the recent fighting has been trench warfare. The wounds inflicted are usually in the head, not in the limbs or body. That is why one man is killed to every three wounded. The usual proportion is one killed to five wounded.

Q.—What is the proportion between officers and men killed and wounded?

A.—That is difficult to say, as only Great Britain gives any particulars as to how many officers are amongst the casualties. It is pretty certain that the loss of English officers is heavier than those of the French, German, or Russian. All neutrals appear to agree that the British officer exposes himself too much. To calmly stand up in a trench and survey the enemy, instead of peeping at him from cover, is magnificent, but hardly wise. After all, an officer is a bit of the machinery of an army most difficult to replace. Roughly, there is one officer to every forty men in our army. In the earlier engagements there was one officer to every thirty men in the casualty lists, but recently the proportion has been as high as one to 15.

Q.—Are German and Austrian Loans quoted in London?

A.—They are still to be found in the official list. In April, for instance, Bri-

tish 2½ per cent. Consols were quoted at 66 9 16, Austrian 4 per cent. Gold Rentes at 55½, French 3 per cent. Rentes at 68½, German 3 per cent. Stock at 58, and Russian 4½ per cent. stock at 90 1 8. In comparing these prices and judging from them the financial position of the respective countries, it is only right to point out, that as far as the German and Austrian securities are concerned, the prices are placed upon them in an enemy country, and naturally an enemy Government has not only no reason to maintain the prices of their adversaries' loans, but would naturally assist every downward movement of these securities on the Stock Exchange.

Q.—But surely no one wants German or Austrian securities in England?

A.—Probably not, but there have been fairly frequent dealings in German 3 per cents., the purchase, it is thought, being on account of New Yorkers with Teutonic connections.

Q.—Is it true that the German Shipping Companies have been able to obtain so large a share of the world's trade owing to the heavy subsidies they get from the German Government?

A.—That is the generally accepted explanation why the Germans have in many cases beaten British shipping companies, but, like so many other accepted ideas, it has little or no basis in fact. The success of the German companies is due rather to that thoroughness in all matters of detail, which we have come to know and dread since the war started, than to any subsidies from the Government.

Q.—But surely the German companies receive large grants?

A.—The only grants they get are in the form of payments for the carriage of mails, just as the Orient and P. and O. do. The following comparison is interesting:—

SUBSIDIES PAID TO STEAMSHIP COMPANIES IN CONNECTION WITH THEIR AUSTRALIAN SERVICE.

Company.	Voyages per Year.	Total No. of Miles run per Year.	Subsidy.	Amount of Subsidy per Mile.
Norddeutscher Lloyd	13 ...	342,420 ...	£95,000 ...	5s. 6½d.
P. and O. Line	26 ...	652,850 ...	146,500 ...	4s. 5½d.
Orient Line	26 ...	602,640 ...	173,400 ...	5s.
Messageries Maritimes	13 ...	315,108 ...	48,760 ...	3s. 1d.

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From this table it will be seen that there is not a very great difference between the British and German "subsidy." Still more interesting is the following comparison between the subsidies for the carriage of mails paid to the different companies in connection with their Eastern services.

Company.	Voyages per Year.	Total No. of Miles run per Year.	Subsidy.	Amount of Subsidy per Mile.
Norddeutscher Lloyd	26 ...	675,246 ...	£171,000 ...	5s. 0½d.
P. and O. Line	26 ...	731,120 ...	164,500 ...	4s. 5½d.
Messageries Maritimes	26 ...	528,372 ...	228,050 ...	8s. 7¾d.
Gesellschaft Nederland	26 ...	494,000 ...	26,500 ...	1s. 0¾d.
Rotterdamse Lloyd	26 ...	468,000 ...	26,500 ...	1s. 1½d.
Oesterreichischer Lloyd	12 ...	235,715 ...	34,600 ...	2s. 10½d.
Societa Marthina (Genoa-Bombay)	13 ...	117,499 ...	68,400 ...	11s. 7½d.
Nippon Yusen Kaisha	26 ...	639,808 ...	316,900 ...	9s. 10¾d.

It is obvious from these figures that the Norddeutscher Lloyd can hardly be regarded as a "hot-house product," although the French, Italian and Japanese lines might be accused of being artificially fostered.

Q.—Has any estimate been made of the actual amount it costs to kill one soldier in this war?

A.—The French General Percin has estimated that in the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71, it cost £4200 each; in the Russo-Japanese war of 1905, it cost £4100. It is costing far more than that in the present war.

Q.—Are there German named men in high command of Russia's Armies?

A.—There were. But not now. When Rennenkampf, the friend of the Tsar, a really great general, was sent back to Petrograd, with him went every commander concerning whom there existed the least doubt. A German name was enough to condemn a general. The "manns," the "bergs," the "heims" fell like ripe fruit before the gale.

Q.—But surely many good men must have been sacrificed?

A.—Without doubt, for many of Russia's best soldiers are of German descent, and hide patriotic Russians beneath a German name. Todleben, the heroic defender of Sebastopol against French and English, was one such. Still, the Grand Duke Nicholas was, undoubtedly, right to purge the entire army of every officer of high rank who might prove a traitor, even if in so doing he did terrible injustice to some of his best men.

Q.—Is Portugal at war with Germany, or not?

A.—The Republic has apparently never declared formal war on Germany. What she did do, was to solemnly announce that she was in alliance with Great Britain. This course may permit her to take over the very large number of German steamers which fled to Lisbon for refuge when war broke out. That, however, is a matter which will hardly be settled until peace is concluded.

Q.—Did Schleswig-Holstein ever belong to Germany before 1866?

A.—No. It did belong to the Holy Roman Empire at one time, which Empire, of course, included what is now Germany. It was acquired by Denmark in 1773, and was annexed by Prussia after the war in 1866. In 1871, it became with Prussia part of the German Empire.

Q.—Is it true that the Kaiser is the rightful heir to the British throne?

A.—It certainly is not. It is true that he is half English, being the son of Queen Victoria's eldest child, who married the Emperor Frederick, but a daughter's children do not succeed whilst sons and sons' children are living. Far away from the throne of England as he is, the young son of the king of Norway, whose mother is King Edward's daughter, is nearer to it than the Kaiser.

Q.—How many sisters has the Kaiser, and whom are they married to?

A.—He has four sisters. The two eldest and the youngest are married to

German princes. The third, Sophie, is the wife of King Constantine, of Greece. He has only one brother, Prince Heinrich. The Kaiser has six sons, all big, upstanding men, and one daughter, who recently married the Duke of Brunswick.

Q.—How wide is the Rhine?

A.—It varies a good deal. At the Swiss frontier it is only 189 yards. At Mannheim it is 429, at Mayence 492, at Coblenz 599, at Bonn 532, at Cologne 433, at Dusseldorf 409, and at the Dutch frontier 909. From Mayence to Dusseldorf it varies from 9 to 76 feet in depth. Above Mayence it is never deeper than 25 feet, and shoals to as little as three feet in places.

Q.—Are women doing men's work in Germany?

A.—Certainly they are. We reproduce a photograph of women being instructed as tram drivers in Berlin. In England, too, women have been substituted for men for many tasks. Not for trams, however, as the men refuse to work with them. In France also women have risen nobly to the occasion, and have taken the places of their husbands and brothers in all walks of life. Continental women always assist greatly in gathering in the harvest, and tilling the soil. This year's German harvest, which is said to be the greatest ever reaped, has been largely garnered in, however, by the Russian prisoners of war.

Q.—Why is China sending gold direct to the United States?

A.—Chinese bankers have hitherto always paid for American goods by drafts on London, Paris, or Berlin. Since the war, however, Chinese and Japanese merchants have found it worth while to open credits with American banks. The marine war risks and insurance rates for gold are lower on cargoes destined for the United States than on those destined for England. That is the reason why China sent

£600,000 in gold to America in January. Having once started doing this, it is highly probable that China and Japan will continue dealing directly with America after the war is over.

Q.—What would Prohibition in Great Britain cost the Government?

A.—It is estimated that total prohibition would mean a loss in revenue of 60 millions a year, or £5,000,000 a month, just about a quarter of the entire national revenue. If spirits alone were prohibited, the loss of revenue would be £2,000,000 a month.

Q.—Is General Bernhardt's book known in Germany?

A.—Hardly at all. It is safe to say that it has had a far larger sale in England, France and America than in Germany. The mass of Germans have never heard of him. Five thousand copies of his book were printed, but not even all those were sold.

Q.—You referred to Cyprus in the last catechism. What were the actual terms on which Turkey allowed the English occupation?

A.—The Treaty between Her Majesty the Queen and His Imperial Majesty the Sultan set forth that: "If Batoum, Ardahan, Kars, or any of them shall be returned by Russia, and if any attempt shall be made at any future time by Russia to take possession of any further territories of H.I.M. the Sultan in Asia, as fixed by the definitive Treaty of Peace (signed between Russia and Turkey on February 8, 1879), England engages to join H.I.M. the Sultan in defending them by force of arms. . . . And, in order to enable England to make necessary provision for executing her engagement, H.I.M. the Sultan further consents to assign the Island of Cyprus, to be occupied and administered by England." This is one of the few treaties which states definitely that one nation will fight another under certain circumstances.



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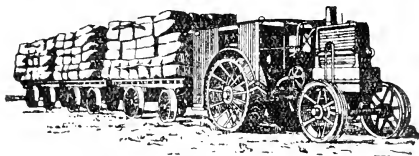
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The adverse influence of the war on banking profits is discernible in the June, 1915, half-yearly report of this bank. In the corresponding period of 1914 the gross earnings exceeded £119,000, whereas during the past six months they were about £12,000 lower. Consequently, as it was not possible to reduce the current expenses beyond £400 to £54,200, the net profit for the period was only about £52,650, the lowest since December, 1910.

* * *

There are, however, good grounds for thinking that the actual falling off was not as large as it would appear. When, in December last, the net profit fell by £4800 below the June, 1914, figure to £59,750, the directors reduced the dividend on both classes of ordinary and preference shares from 6 per cent. to 5 per cent. Now, however, despite the further decline in the earnings, the directors have returned to the 6 per cent. per annum rate for the past half-year. As a consequence, the amount distributed this time in dividends, £44,300, was about £7400 greater than it was last December, which suggests that the June half-year was on the whole rather better than the previous one.

* * *

The directors appear to have continued their liberal policy in regard to loans. The advances, which, in December, had decreased by £160,000 to £6,271,000, have during the past six months risen by over £230,000 to more than £6,502,800. The actual growth for the full year was over £59,000. This has, however, been at the expense of the liquid assets. These have been reduced to £2,360,000, about £294,000 below the amount held a year ago. But the drain caused by the additional advances was

small, compared with that due to the decrease of £245,000 in the liabilities to £7,277,000. This decrease for the most part was in the bills in circulation. These, owing to the disturbance in trade, fell away by over £142,000 to £392,000. There was an increase of £24,000 in the Government deposits to £656,000, but the benefit of this was lost in the decline of £130,000 in the other deposits to £6,084,000.

* * *

The reduction in the liquid assets to meet the extra advances and the falling liabilities was somewhat out of proportion to the decrease in obligations. Consequently the ratio held to public liabilities, which, in June, 1914, had been 35.2 per cent., is now only 32.4 per cent. As a set-off to some degree against this, the bank is, however, able to offer its customers an improved margin of assets over liabilities. It now holds over £126 of assets for every £100 of liabilities, where a year ago the proportion was under £124 15/- . This margin is much greater than that offered by most of the leading banks. The funds which constitute this surplus amount in all to over £1,892,000. They secure the shareholders' interests in the preference capital of £416,760 in fully paid £10 shares, the ordinary capital of £1,061,250 in £10 shares paid to £5, and the published reserves of £414,454.

* * *

At the time of writing, the preference shares are selling at £10 5/-, cum. div., showing a return of not quite 5½ per cent. on the average dividend of 5½ per cent. for the year. The ordinary shares also, cum. div., are changing hands at 86 -, yielding about 6½ per cent.

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3. To insist on the vital necessity to the Empire of British supremacy on the sea.
4. To draw together in the bond of comradeship the peoples now living under the folds of the British flag.

The Over Seas' Club is strictly non-party, non-sectarian, and recognises no distinction of class. Its members reside in all parts of the world *outside* the United Kingdom. Membership is open to any British subject, British-born or naturalised.

General.—Evelyn Wrench, hon secretary, writes that Over Seas' matters are booming, and encloses letters from Lord Kitchener and Lord Stamfordham (secretary of the King), congratulating the Club on the presentation of its first aeroplane to the Royal Flying Corps. During the next few months, says Mr. Wrench, we hope to present aeroplanes from each province and State in Australia, Canada and South Africa, from India, New Zealand, Newfoundland, the West Indies, and elsewhere. Hong Kong has given no less than three aeroplanes, for which it has sent a cheque for £4500! Thanks to the generosity of friends over seas six aeroplanes in all had been provided by June 1, 1915. Hong Kong, Nova Scotia, Saskatchewan, Gibraltar, the West Indies, South Africa and New Zealand have all promised to provide a unit. Collection is also going on in Tasmania and Victoria. The club membership is close on 130,000.

Melbourne.—The branch is making full use of its new premises, and holds regular weekly café chantants and lectures under the energetic direction of the ladies' committee, headed by Mrs. James. The tea given on French Day, in aid of the funds of the French Red Cross, yielded the highly respectable sum of £27. Amongst other lectures given was one by Mr. Griffen—the brilliant American architect, who was called to take charge of the laying out of the Federal city—on Canberra. With the idea of making the club still more Imperial, the committee asked the representatives of

Canada (Mr. Ross), and of New Zealand (Mr. Manson) to become vice-presidents, and both of them consented, so that now the Melbourne branch is controlled by a very representative and powerful body, led by Sir David Hennessy, Lord Mayor. The time is surely ripe for the formation of a general Australian Council to co-ordinate the different branches throughout the Commonwealth.

Hobart.—The branch continues to show itself very much alive, and displays much activity in collecting and raising money for the many patriotic funds, which have been started in Hobart as well as for the special objects begun on the initiative of the Over Seas headquarters in London.

Dunedin.—The branch is doing good work in connection with the wounded soldiers, and is beginning to prepare cases of useful goods to be sent to London for the poor, and also for the distressed Belgians. The women's committee donated six complete beds for use at the military hospital at Trentham, where the New Zealand troops are being trained, and have also presented 500 towels, so far, for use by the Expeditionary Forces. "At present," reports Mr. Macfie, "the city is turned upside down running a big Queen Carnival in aid of the Wounded Soldiers' Fund, and it is taking up a great deal of the work and attention of every one of us." As usual, the energetic committee offers an example which might well be copied by many Australian and other New Zealand branches.

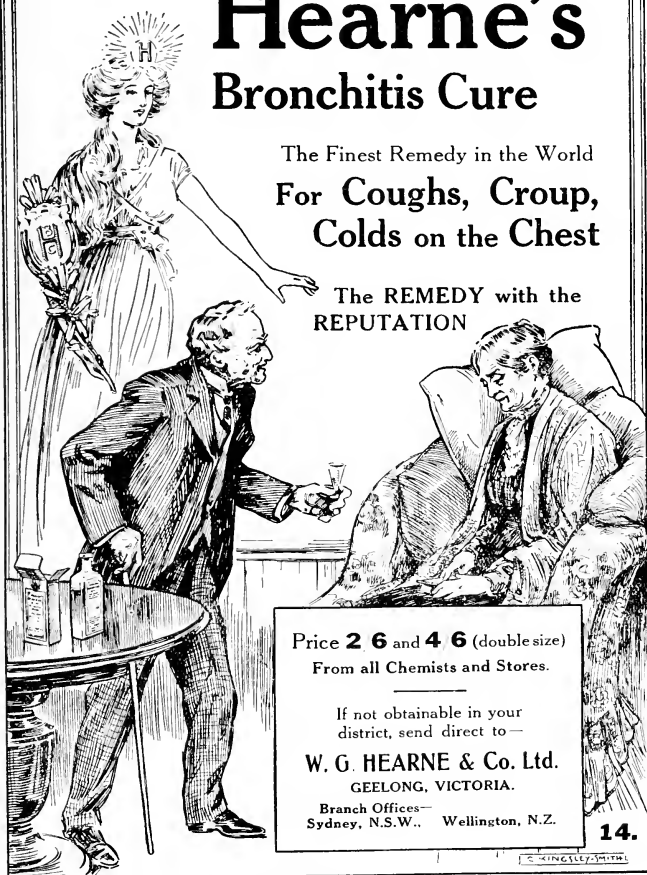
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